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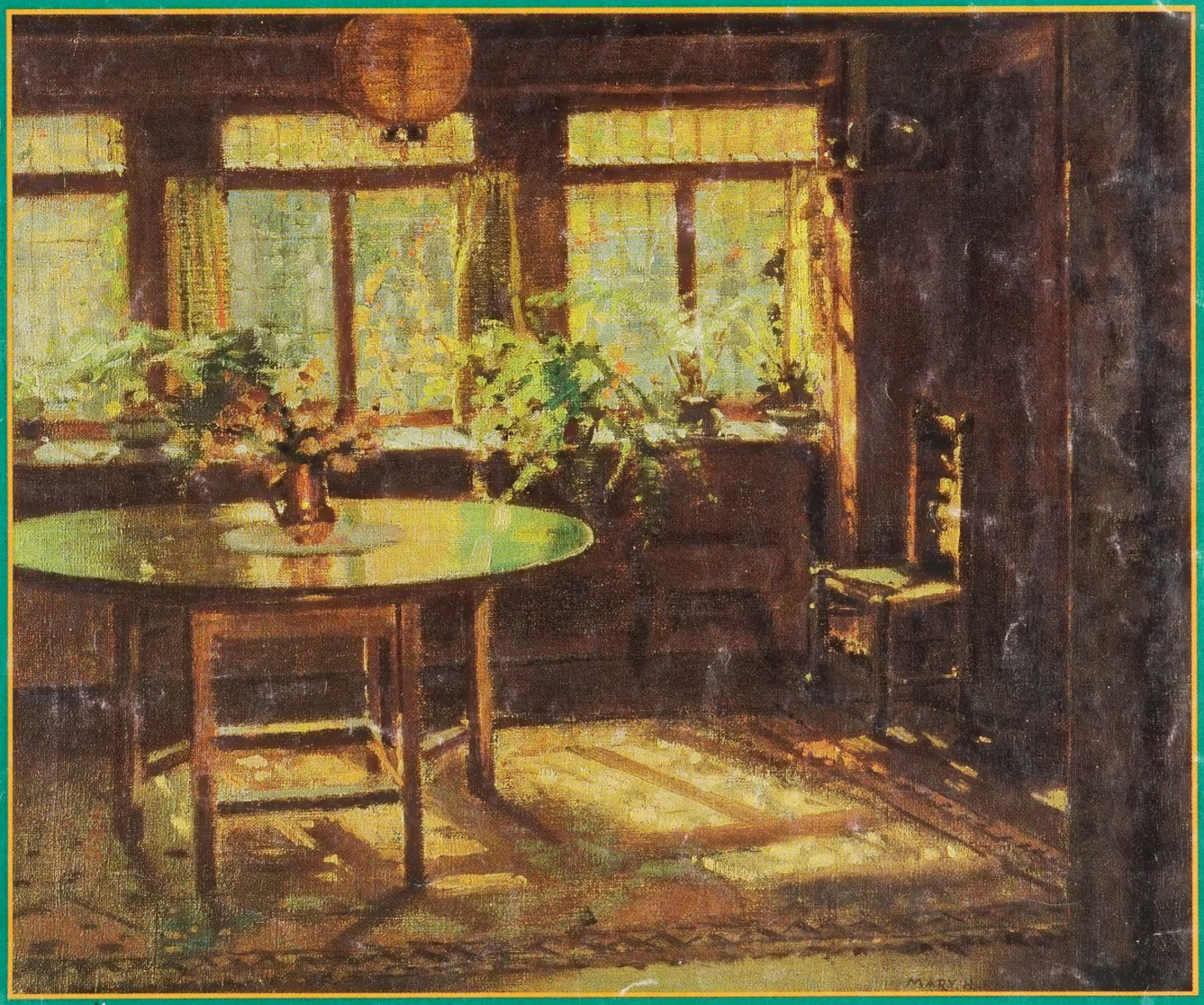
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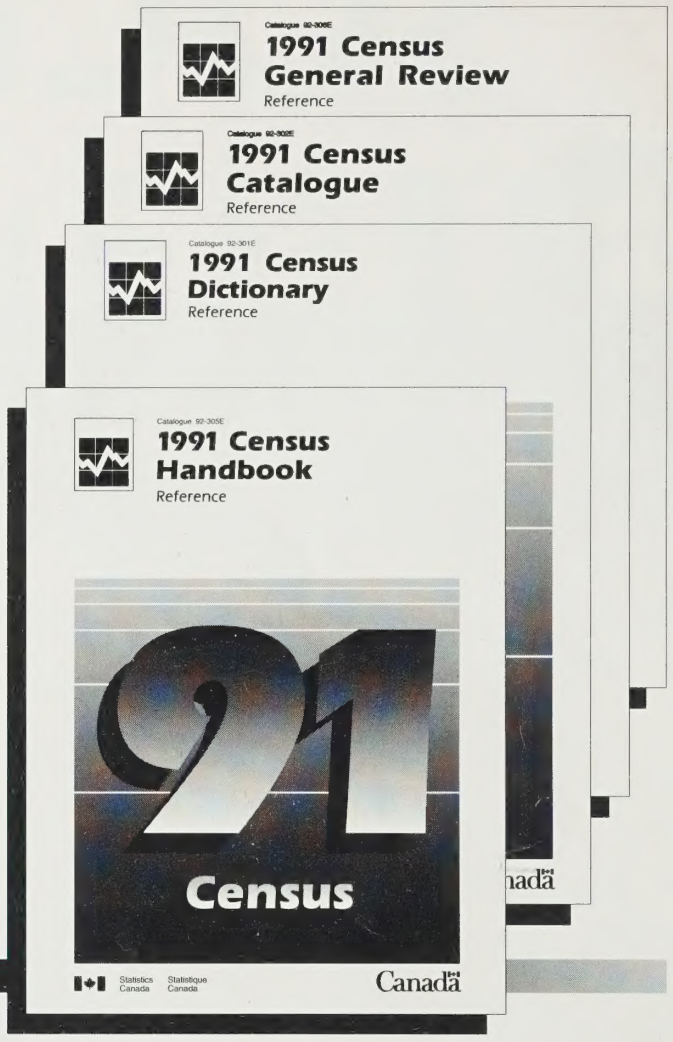
MISSING CHILDREN □ FOOD BANKS

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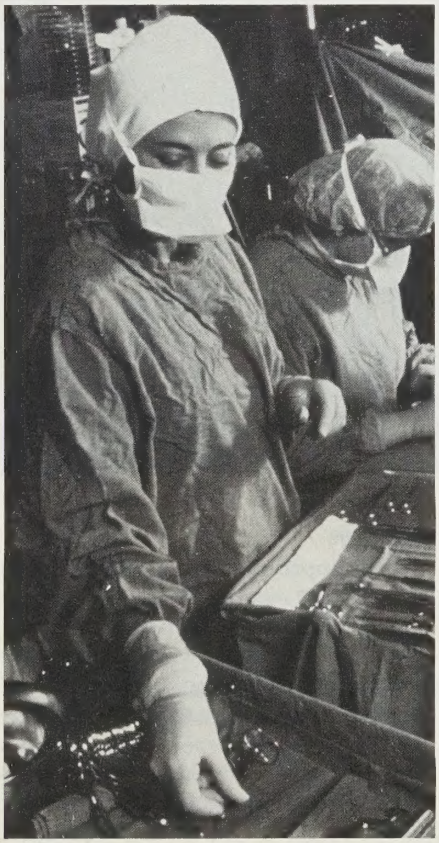
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Cover: ***Morning Sunshine*** (1913) oil on canvas, 63.5 x 76.4 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the Artist:

Mary Hiester Reid (1854-1921) was born at Reading, Pennsylvania and in her youth attended the School of Design in Philadelphia. In 1885, with her husband, artist G.A. Reid, she moved to Toronto where they painted and gave art classes. Throughout her artistic career, Mrs. Reid became widely known for her still-life and garden scenes, as well as her mastery of atmospheric effects of moonlight and tonal nocturnes landscapes.



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Children are kidnapped less often by complete strangers than by family members and people known to the family and victim. In 1990, reported abductions by strangers accounted for 0.1% (84) of the missing children cases handled by police.

Most cases initially entered as stranger abductions were subsequently changed to other categories. Of the 84 cases reported in 1990, 10 remained in the stranger abduction category after police department investigations.

From 1968 to 1990, 30 children abducted by strangers remained missing. While the frequency of abduction by strangers is quite low, children can be harmed and exploited without going missing, or without notification to the police. If a child is abducted and returned or located before their absence is acknowledged by parents or police, it is unlikely that the child would be recorded as missing in CPIC files.

Other categories

Four other categories of missing children account for the remainder (27%) of all cases reported to police in 1990. Cases in which the child went missing as a result of an accident (usually drowning) and the child or body has not yet been found, are kept in a separate category. Accidents accounted for less than 1% of the missing children cases in 1990 (44 cases out of 61,248).

A further 1.7% of missing children cases in 1990 resulted from the child either getting lost or wandering off. Most are presumed to be lost in forest areas or drowned. In an additional 21% of reported cases, the circumstances surrounding the disappearance are unknown.

In 3% of reported cases, a child has gone missing from a detention home or an institution. The numbers of such cases have increased since the Registry was established.

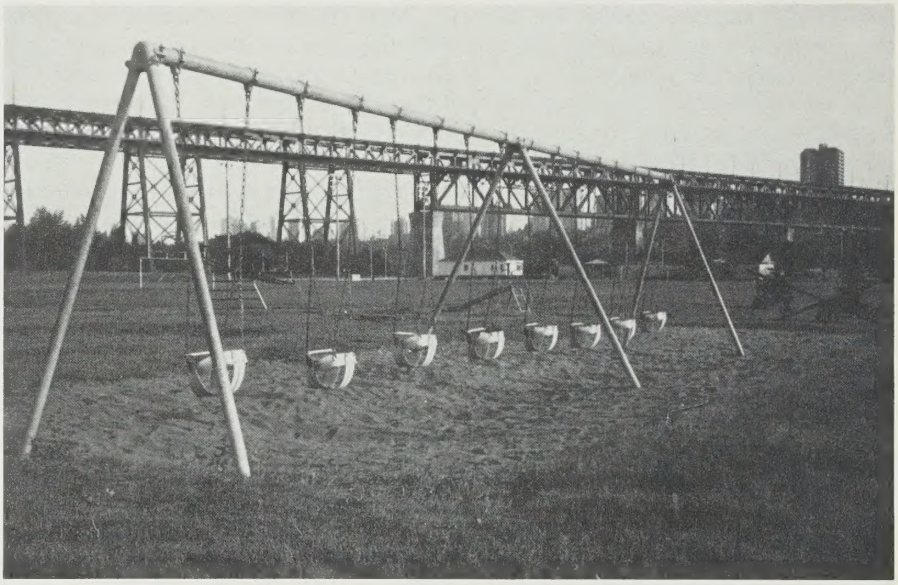
More children being abducted

The number of offences of abduction recorded in Statistics Canada's Crime reports exceeds the number of cases of children recorded as missing as a result of abduction in the Missing Children's Registry. Children can be abducted and not reported as missing. For example, a child could be taken by a parent in contravention of a custody order, and the parent with legal custody might go and retrieve the child. Following this, the parent with legal custody could report the incident to police, and the abducting parent could be charged with abduction.

In 1983, Bill C-127 changed the law regarding child abduction offences in Canada. Two broad categories of such offences exist, one pertaining to abduction of children under age 16, and another to the abduction of those under age 14. Both are indictable offences with maximum penalties of 5 and 10 years imprisonment, respectively.

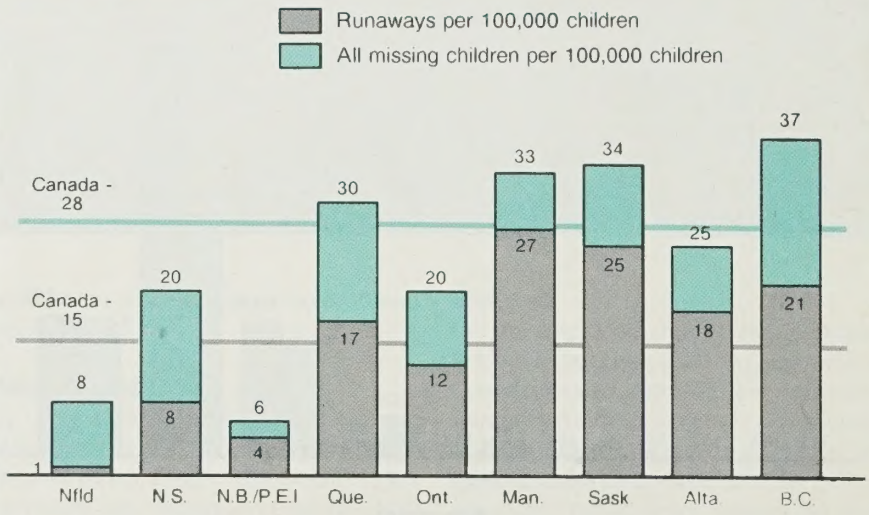
When a child under age 14 is taken by a parent and withheld from the other parent, guardian, or person having lawful care of the child, sentencing can range from 10 years in prison to a summary conviction carrying a maximum penalty of a $2,000 fine and/or six months in prison, depending on the circumstances. In 1990, there were 359 parental abductions that violated custody orders issued by Canadian courts, and 245 cases where children were abducted by a parent or guardian while no custody order was in place.

The number of child abduction offences in 1990 was 1,023, up from 703 in 1983. The increases are most evident in the non-parental category concerning the abduction of children under age 14 (354 actual cases), and in the parental abduction category where a custody order had been in effect.



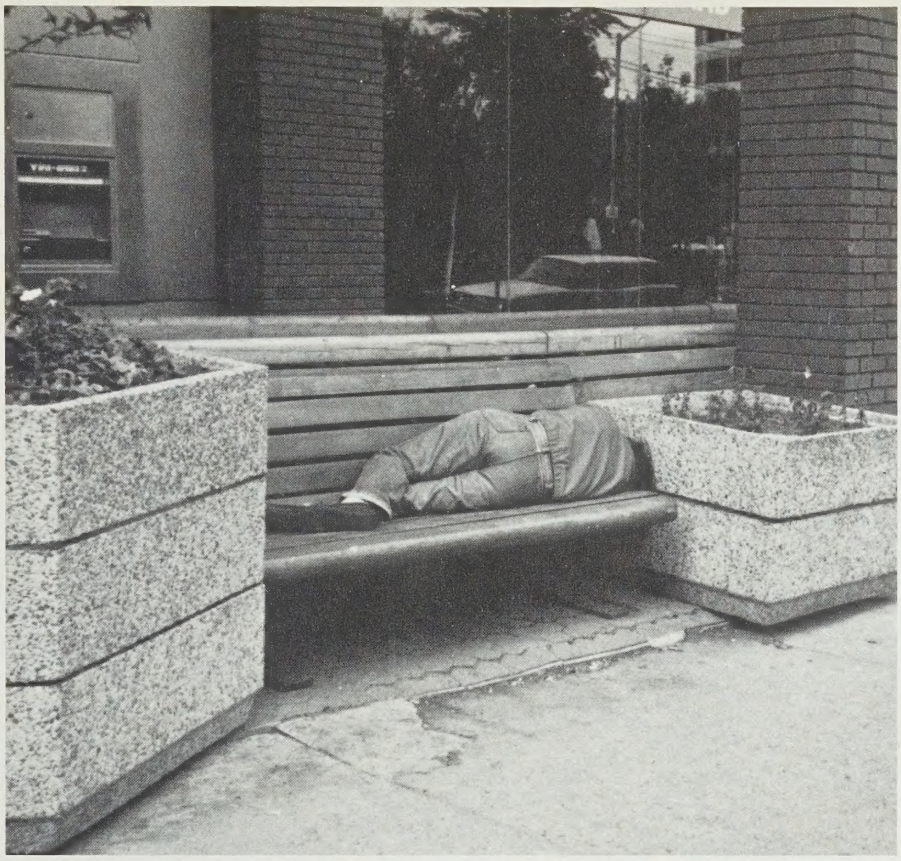
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Missing children, by region, 1990[1]



[1] As of December 31st.

Source: Royal Canadian Mounted Police, Missing Children's Registry, 1990.



Missing children in the United States

In 1990, the United States Department of Justice (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention) commissioned an investigation into the problem of missing children. Records kept by juvenile facilities, police, FBI, and data from various surveys were examined.

The investigation discovered that the problem of parental abduction in the United States was three times greater than had been previously estimated. Using numbers from the most restrictive definition of parental abduction, 163,200 children were recorded as abducted by a parent in 1988.

Parental abductions accounted for over 30% of missing children cases in the study. While it is difficult to compare data between the United States and Canada due to the use of different definitions and methods of collection, the United States' rate for parental abduction probably exceeds that of Canada. In 1988, parental abductions accounted for only 0.8% of missing children cases reported to Canadian police organizations. This difference may be linked to lower divorce rates in Canada (308 per 100,000 population) than in the United States (480 per 100,000).

The study also revealed that many missing children fall into a category referred to by some as "throw-aways". These are children, mostly teenagers, who are either asked to leave home by their parent(s), or who run away and no attempt is made by the parent(s) to locate the child. Such displaced children were estimated to total 59,200 in 1989, accounting for almost 12% of missing children cases examined.

The National Centre for Missing and Exploited Children in Arlington, Virginia conducted an investigation (1986) into stranger abduction cases in the United States. Their research revealed that 70% of children kidnapped by strangers were also victims of sexual (54%) or physical (24%) assault and/or murder (22%), indicating that abduction often precedes further criminal activity.

The vast majority of abducted children were girls, and the average age was 10.5 years. Most children (98%) were held by their abductor for less than 24 hours.

Provincial variations by case type

Western provinces generally have missing children rates higher than the rest of the country. As of December 31, 1990, British Columbia had 37 missing children for every 100,000 children, Saskatchewan had 34 and Manitoba, 33. Ontario and Nova Scotia had 20 missing children for every 100,000 children, and the other Atlantic provinces had still lower rates.

The Western provinces also had the highest incidence of runaway children, while provinces with coastal regions had higher incidents of children missing as a result of accidents — often drownings.

Public involvement

Non-profit organizations helping to locate and return missing children or to provide services to children missing from their home are continually expanding their services in Canada. One of the larger agencies is Child Find Canada Inc., with provincial offices across Canada. Other non-profit organizations include: The Missing Children's Network/Le Réseau Enfants Retour (Montreal); The Missing Children Society of Canada (Calgary); the recently established Canadian Search Centre for Missing and Exploited Children (Delta, British Columbia); and Operation Go Home. In addition, Child Find and Operation Go Home are working with Project Return/ Projet Retour (Revenue Canada, Customs and Excise) on missing children cases.

These voluntary agencies distribute posters and flyers to police, schools, libraries, customs' offices and bus stations, as well as to other public places and private citizens. Also used to inform the public are television and newsprint media, real estate guides and corporate newsletters. Trucking companies have also displayed posters on trucks.

Conclusion

Missing children, particularly chronic runaways, are vulnerable to substance and physical and sexual abuse, prostitution and health problems. In addition, depending on how long they stay away from home, these children may lack appropriate housing, food, education, and conventional job training or experience.

Ryan J. McDonald *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

FOOD BANKS

by Jillian Oderkirk



Private charities that provide emergency food and meals to the poor through soup kitchens and meal programs are not a new phenomenon in Canada. The Salvation Army, for example, has been providing food to needy people for generations. However, since the recession of the early 1980s, a new and more sophisticated private system of food relief has emerged: food banks. The food bank network began with 1 operation in Edmonton in 1981 and within 10 years expanded to every province of Canada, totalling almost 300 operations.

Food banks are designed to distribute food, some of which might otherwise be wasted, to people in emergency situations. Families with children, particularly families receiving welfare and the working poor, are the most dependent on food relief provided by food banks.

Number of food banks rising rapidly

The first food bank in Canada was created in Edmonton, Alberta in 1981 at the onset of a downturn in the Canadian economy. By 1984, there were 75 operations in British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Ontario, Quebec, and New Brunswick. Throughout the remainder of the 1980s, the number of food banks continued to grow. By October 1991, as the economy underwent another recession, there were 292 food banks registered with the Canadian Association of Food Banks. This network was operating or supplying over 1,200 grocery programs and 580 meal programs in more than 300 communities across the country.

Food banks

Food banks are non-profit charitable organizations designed to pool food, that for various reasons, such as mislabelling, approaching expiry dates, or overproduction, is discarded by the food industry, and to give it to charitable food programs. Participation is sought from food processors, wholesalers, manufacturers, food brokers, retailers, and farmers.

Not all food collected by food banks, however, is surplus to the food industry. Some food banks purchase food to help provide a greater nutritional balance for their users. Food donated by individuals has also often been purchased.

The primary function of food banks is to supplement the food programs of other social agencies and religious groups providing grocery baskets and prepared meals to people in emergency situations. Food banks may also assist groups helping battered women, street children, transients, people on alcohol rehabilitation, and others.

Several large food banks supply food only to other charitable agencies. However, the majority of food banks also give food directly to people in need.

Privately funded

In general, most funding for the operation of food banks comes from private sources — individuals, religious organizations, and non-government organizations, such as the United Way. In some instances, governments have provided a portion of operating funds, through start-up and job creation grants, for example. Many food banks, however, do not receive assistance from government sources. While reasons for this may be numerous, some food banks, such as the Metro Food Bank in Halifax, are concerned that with government funding they may become a permanent part of the social assistance system.

Recipients of food relief rising

According to the Canadian Association of Food Banks, two million individuals, 7.5% of the population, including 700,000 children under age 18, are expected to receive food assistance at least once in 1991.

In the autumn of 1990, about 590,000 individuals received monthly aid from food banks, an increase of 53% from the spring of 1989. Over the same period, the number of food banks known to the Canadian Association of Food Banks rose 1%. The increasing number of people being served by food banks may be attributed, at least in part, to the effects of the economic recession.

Most common in Ontario

The rate of food bank usage has been higher in Ontario than in other regions of Canada. In the autumn of 1990, 28 out of every 1,000 individuals received monthly food relief in Ontario. This was followed by 24 recipients for every 1,000 people in Atlantic Canada, 19 in the Prairies, 18 in Quebec, and 14 in British Columbia.

Food bank usage increased the most in Quebec, where the number of people served per month rose 69% from the spring of 1989 to the autumn of 1990. Large increases also occurred in Atlantic Canada (64%) and Ontario (60%). The number of monthly food recipients did not increase as much in the Prairie provinces (29% growth) and British Columbia (22% growth).

40% of recipients are children

Children are overrepresented among those receiving food relief. According to the Canadian Association of Food Banks in 1990, children under age 18 accounted for about 40% of food bank beneficiaries. However, only 25% of Canada's total

Food banks in Canada, 1981-1991

	1981	1984	1988[1]	1989	1990	1991
Newfoundland	0	0	1	1	1	17
Prince Edward Island	0	0	2	2	2	3
Nova Scotia	0	2	8	14	14	27
New Brunswick	0	2	27	34	35	40
Quebec	0	2	5	5	5	11
Ontario	0	4	19	33	35	88
Manitoba	0	1	1	3	3	4
Saskatchewan	0	5	5	5	8	11
Alberta	1	12	16	26	24	40
British Columbia	0	47	42	36	34	51
Canada	**1**	**75**	**126**	**159**	**161**	**292**

[1] Estimates from 1988 to 1991 from the Canadian Association of Food Banks do not include Salvation Army Family Services Divisions operating food banks. Growth during this period can be attributed to the creation of new food banks and to the registration of existing food banks with the association.

Sources: Riches, G., *Food Banks and the Welfare Crisis.* (Ottawa: Canadian Council on Social Development, 1986); and Canadian Association of Food Banks.

Canadian Association of Food Banks

The Canadian Association of Food Banks, a national organization representing food banks, was initiated in October 1986. Representatives from food banks in each province constitute the executive committee of the association. The objectives of the association are: to promote public education, using the experience and statistics gained from dealing directly with the recipients of food and the agencies trying to help them; to obtain and redistribute food by coordinating donations from national sources; to share information among food banks; to train new food bank operators; and to upgrade existing food bank operations.

Data, in this article, on the operation of food banks were collected by this association. For more information contact the Canadian Association of Food Banks, 372 Pacific Avenue, Toronto, Ontario, M6P 2R1.

population were children that age. In 1990, one out of every nine children under age 18 received emergency food assistance from the food bank an average of 3.5 times per year. Also, families with children received two-thirds of the 3.2 million grocery baskets distributed in Canada that year.

The Canadian Association of Food Banks estimated that in 1990, 49% of the recipients of food in the Prairie provinces were children, compared with 47% in Atlantic Canada, 42% in British Columbia, 39% in Ontario, and 24% in Quebec.

Grocery baskets more common than meals

Most of the food aid people receive is in the form of groceries. However, food banks also supply food to agencies that prepare meals, such as soup kitchens and meal programs. According to the Canadian Association of Food Banks, 82% of people receiving food relief in 1990 were given groceries to prepare at home an average of 1.6 times per month. The remainder were served meals an average of 18 times per month.

Overall, food banks distributed 4.6 million pounds of food per month in 1990, through 1.49 million prepared meals and 294,000 grocery baskets.

Supply problems

Most agencies are not able to provide, on a consistent basis, grocery baskets containing appropriate quantities and product variety to meet the nutritional requirements of those they are helping. The Standing Committee on Social Development of the Government of Ontario reported in 1990 that "in most cases, food banks are unable to ensure an appropriate balanced diet for such large numbers."

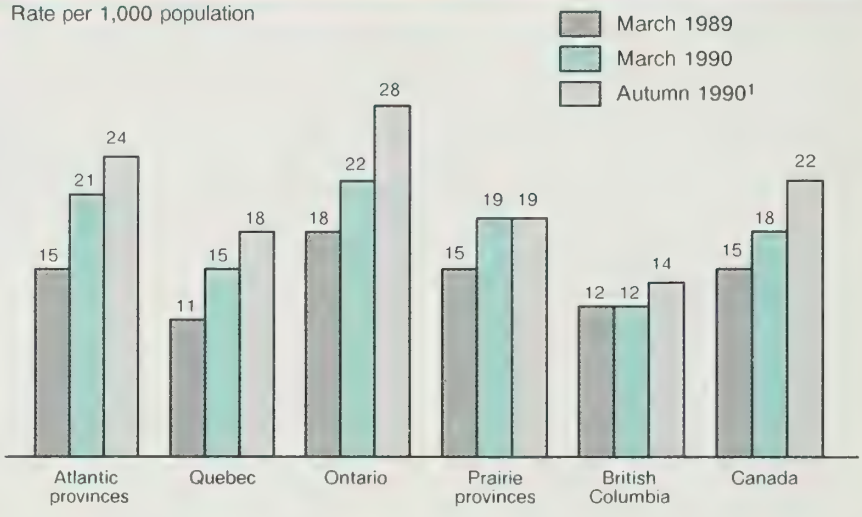
The number of food banks reporting that they had been experiencing food shortages was higher in 1990 than in previous years. Almost 90% of all food banks reported that they had some means of rationing food resources by screening clients and limiting the number of times a household could receive assistance in a given month.

Canadians perceive hunger problem

Two-thirds of Canadians felt that hunger was a very serious (21%) or a quite serious (45%) problem in Canada, according to a May, 1990 Gallup Report. This result was similar to 1989 (65%). Ontario, Atlantic, and Prairie residents were the most concerned about hunger, with about 67% stating that it was a very or quite serious problem, followed by 63% of Quebec residents, and 59% of British Columbia residents.

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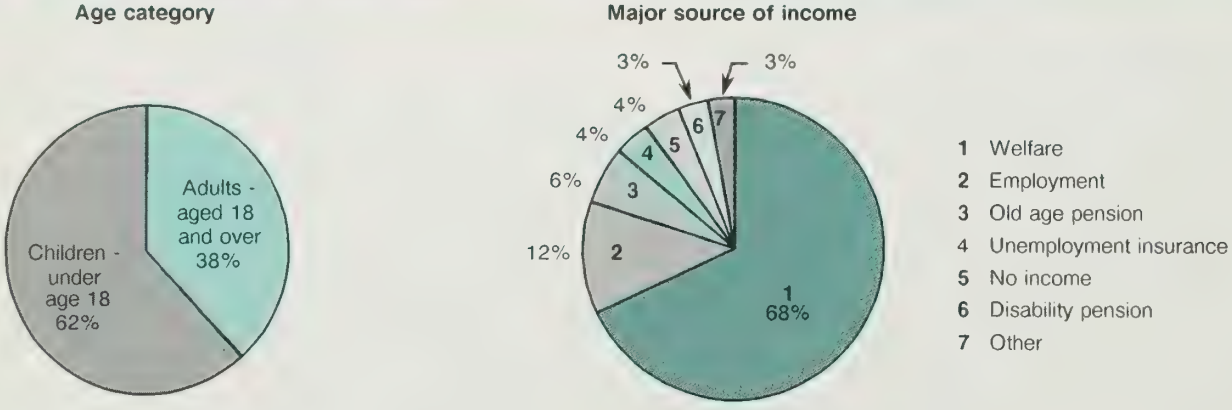
Recipients of food from food banks, by region



1 Preliminary estimates.
Source: Canadian Association of Food Banks.

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Recipients of food from food banks, 1990



Source: Canadian Association of Food Banks.

Fewer Canadians in 1990 than in 1989 felt that hungry people should be largely responsible for solving the hunger problem themselves. Also, fewer Canadians felt that food banks should be responsible for solving the hunger problem. In 1990, just 28% of Canadians felt that hungry people should have a great deal of responsibility for solving the hunger problem, down substantially from 41% in 1989. In 1990, 24% of Canadians felt that food banks should have a great deal of responsibility for solving the hunger problem, down from 37% in 1989. One-half of Canadians in 1989 and 1990 felt that food banks should have some responsibility for solving the problem.

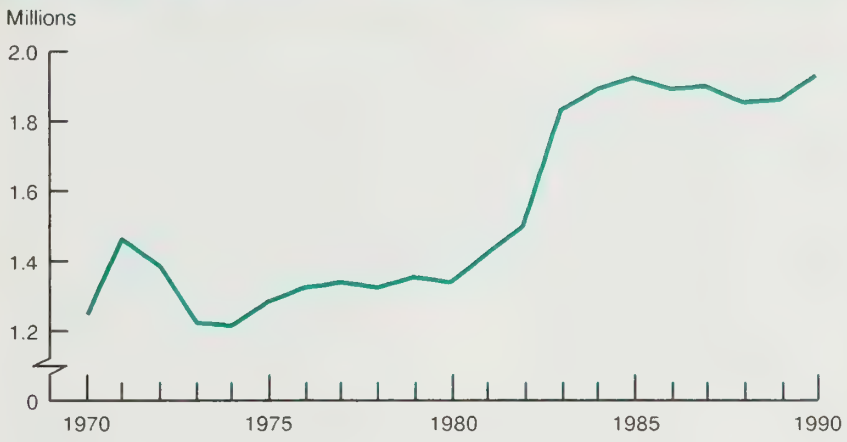
Just 10% of Canadians felt that governments in Canada were adequately addressing the hunger problem, while 61% felt that governments were partially addressing the problem, 24% thought that they were not responding at all, and 5% did not know.

Most food bank users are welfare recipients

Welfare (social assistance) was the major source of income for 68% of all food bank recipients in 1990. Those with employment income accounted for 12% of food bank recipients, followed by people receiving old age pensions (6%), Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries (4%), people with no income (4%), those receiving disability pensions (3%), and others (3%).

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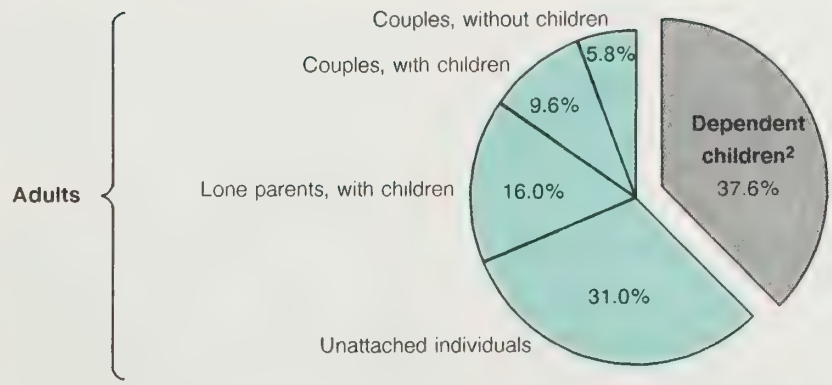
Welfare recipients,[1] March 1970 to March 1990



[1] Canada Assistance Plan, number of general assistance beneficiaries (including dependents).
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Social Program Information Division.

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Welfare recipients,[1] March 1990



[1] Figures are estimates.
[2] Includes a small number of dependent adults.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Social Program Information Division.

People with low incomes

Statistics Canada estimated that there were over three million people, including 837,000 children under age 16, living below the Low Income Cut-offs in 1989. The different types of families with low income were unattached individuals (59%), lone parents (13%), two-parent families with children (15%), non-elderly couples (6%), elderly couples (2%), and others (5%). Among unattached individuals, 35% of women and 25% of men had low incomes.

Women and their children are over-represented among those with low incomes. Of all families headed by women in 1989, 33% had low incomes compared with just 7% of those headed by men.[1] Of the major family types, female lone-parent families had the highest rate of low income in 1989 at 50.9%. Among female lone parents who were unemployed (classified as no-earner families), 95% had low incomes. There was very little change for these families during the 1980s.

Families with low incomes tend to be more deeply impoverished than comparable unattached individuals. According to the 1986 Census, 25% of families in a low-income situation had incomes $10,000 or more below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs. Only 5% of unattached individuals had incomes that low. Furthermore, 30% of families with low incomes had incomes between $5,000 and $9,999 below the Low Income Cut-offs. At the same time, most unattached individuals with low incomes (68%) had incomes between $1 and $4,999 below the cut-offs.

[1] Families classified as headed by men had a higher propensity to include two earners than did those headed by women.



The percentage of food bank recipients receiving welfare as their major source of income was high in all regions of Canada, ranging from 56% of households in the Prairies to 83% in British Columbia.

Welfare

For those able to work, but not able to find employment and whose Unemployment Insurance benefits, if any, have run out, the program of last resort is welfare (social assistance). This safety net also supports those unable to work because of illness, physical disability, or the presence of young children. In some cases, welfare benefits help people whose earnings from other sources are not sufficient, especially when emergency expenditures are necessary.

The National Council of Welfare stated that Canadians become eligible for welfare when personal savings are nearly exhausted, when they are ineligible for other support programs, or when they require supplementary income to meet emergency or special needs.

Welfare recipients numerous during 1980s

The number of people benefitting from welfare (social assistance) grew during the recession of the early 1980s and remained high after that. Based on the previous experience of food banks, it is likely that any increase in the number of welfare recipients will produce an increase in the demand for food relief.

By March 1990, 1.93 million Canadians (73 out of every 1,000 people) were receiving welfare. Preliminary totals indicate that this figure will be even larger in 1991. From March 1982 to March 1983, the number of welfare beneficiaries grew 23% from over 1.5 million to 1.8 million and remained high at about 1.9 million since then. Before the recession of the early 1980s, however, the number of beneficiaries was much lower — 1.3 million in March 1980 and 1975, and 1.2 million in March 1970.

Annually since 1983, there have been between 71 and 76 welfare recipients for every 1,000 Canadians. In contrast, there were just 55 welfare recipients for every 1,000 people in 1980 and between 54 and 68 recipients during the 1970s.

Welfare incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1990

Family type and province	Low Income Cut-offs	Welfare incomes	Gap
		$	
Unattached individual			
Newfoundland	12,087	3,984	- 8,103
Prince Edward Island	11,339	7,345	- 3,994
Nova Scotia	12,087	5,982	- 6,105
New Brunswick	12,087	3,004	- 9,083
Quebec	12,727	6,724	- 6,003
Ontario	12,727	7,295	- 5,432
Manitoba	12,727	6,492	- 6,235
Saskatchewan	12,087	5,080	- 7,007
Alberta	12,727	4,903	- 7,824
British Columbia	12,727	5,904	- 6,823
Lone parent with one child			
Newfoundland	15,937	11,251	- 4,686
Prince Edward Island	14,870	11,316	- 3,554
Nova Scotia	15,937	11,115	- 4,822
New Brunswick	15,937	9,191	- 6,746
Quebec	16,791	11,091	- 5,700
Ontario	16,791	14,576	- 2,215
Manitoba	16,791	10,420	- 6,371
Saskatchewan	15,937	11,433	- 4,504
Alberta	16,791	10,245	- 6,546
British Columbia	16,791	11,687	- 5,104
Couple with two children			
Newfoundland	24,601	13,722	- 10,879
Prince Edward Island	22,997	17,186	- 5,811
Nova Scotia	24,601	14,232	- 10,369
New Brunswick	24,601	10,742	- 13,859
Quebec	25,884	16,425	- 9,459
Ontario	25,884	19,545	- 6,339
Manitoba	25,884	18,321	- 7,563
Saskatchewan	24,601	16,262	- 8,339
Alberta	25,884	15,598	- 10,286
British Columbia	25,884	15,140	- 10,774

[1] Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (1978 base) were determined from an analysis of 1978 family expenditure data. Families who on average spent 58.5% or more of their income on food, clothing, and shelter were considered to be in straightened circumstances. Families are assumed to be living in the largest city in each province.

[2] Welfare income estimates include income from Basic Social Assistance, Additional Benefits, Family Allowance Payments, Child Tax Credit, Child Related Benefits, Federal Sales Tax Credit, and Provincial Tax Credits. The unattached individual was considered employable.

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207; and National Council of Welfare.

The number of welfare recipients, however, does not capture all Canadians whose incomes are so low they may be eligible for aid. Many people, such as the homeless, working poor families, and those who rely on friends and family for support, do not apply for welfare for various reasons.

Most welfare recipients are families

Health and Welfare Canada estimated that parents (including lone parents and couples) and their children comprised 63% of Canada's 1.93 million welfare recipients in 1990. The remainder were unattached individuals (31%) and couples without children (6%). Overall, there were 725,300 dependent children whose family heads received social assistance in 1990, representing about 38% of all welfare recipients.

From March 1987 to March 1990, the number of lone-parent families receiving welfare benefits increased 12% to 309,400 households. Over the same period, comparable households headed by unattached individuals declined 2% to 597,800. The number of households consisting of couples and dependent children that received welfare benefits dropped 9% to 93,000, while those consisting of couples that did not have dependent children declined 7% to 55,800.

Welfare incomes below Low Income Cut-offs

Most people receiving food from food banks are welfare recipients. Assistance from food banks enables these families to better provide for their needs given the low income they receive from welfare benefits.

The welfare incomes of families across Canada, estimated for 1990 by the National Council of Welfare, were below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs. The difference between welfare incomes and the Low Income Cut-offs ranged from $2,215 less for a lone parent with one child (under age 7) in Ontario to $13,859 less for a couple with two children (aged 10 and 15) in New Brunswick.

Growth expected to continue

Since the first Canadian food bank opened in 1981, their numbers have risen dramatically. Accompanying the growth in the number of food banks has been an increase in the number of Canadians, predominately families with children, who depend on their assistance. As the economy continues to experience the effects of economic recession, this growth is not expected to diminish.



FOOD RELIEF IN TORONTO

The Daily Bread Food Bank in Toronto, the first food bank in Ontario, opened in 1984. Since then, this operation has been joined by others in Toronto, such as the North York Harvest Food Bank, and the Second Harvest Food Bank.

Majority are families receiving welfare

Records from the Daily Bread Food Bank indicate that 81,000 people received food aid in the form of groceries or meals in January 1990. The largest single group receiving groceries was families with children whose major source of income was welfare. In January 1990, more than one-half of all households that received groceries from the Daily Bread Food Bank were families with children who were receiving welfare benefits (33,340 households), while 16% were similar households without children. Almost 20% of those receiving food relief were households whose major source of income was from employment.

Main activity child care or job search

The main activity of those receiving grocery baskets from the Daily Bread Food Bank in 1991 was caring for children (26%), followed by looking for work (20%), working at a job or business (18%), attending school (14%), staying at home due to illness or disability (13%), staying at home due to retirement (4%), and other activities (5%).

Education level rising

People receiving grocery baskets from the Daily Bread Food Bank were more highly educated in 1991 than they had been in 1987. For example, 9% had graduated from college or university (up from 4% in 1987), 9% had some college or university (up from 4% in 1987), and 22% had graduated from high school (up from 5% in 1987). (In 1989, one out of every five people who went to the food bank were taking courses to improve skills and employability.)

Most still run out of food

Most people receiving groceries in 1991 indicated that, even with aid from the food bank, they sometimes ran out of food because they did not have enough money to buy food. Many indicated that this was a problem that occurred daily (12%), weekly (21%), monthly (23%), or rarely (25%). Just 20% indicated that this was never a problem. Those with larger families and those in private rental housing were more likely to report food shortages.

Security of tenure a problem

In 1991, most recipients of grocery baskets (61%) had moved an average of 2.1 times in the past 12 months indicating that security of tenure may have been a problem for many.

Of all recipients of groceries from the Daily Bread Food Bank, 6% were living in a rooming house without cooking facilities or were homeless (does not include those benefitting from meal programs), 17% were living in rooming houses with cooking facilities, and 14% in basement apartments. About one-half lived in an apartment or flat, while 12% lived in a townhouse, duplex, or single-family home.



FOOD NEEDS IN EDMONTON

To gather information about food needs, the Edmonton Food Policy Council[1] conducted a survey in 1990 of Edmonton residents with low incomes. The project was funded by Health and Welfare Canada. Respondents with incomes at or below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, were classified as "not hungry", "at risk", "hungry", or "very hungry", based on answers to a series of questions relating to their food needs.

Almost 80,000 "hungry" or "at risk"

In 1990, one in five households in Edmonton had low incomes. Of these, 28% (including 19,000 adults and 18,000 children) were classified as "hungry" or



"very hungry", while 34% (including 25,000 adults and 15,000 children) were classified as "at risk" of hunger.

Most ran out of money to buy food

Of all adults with low incomes, 72% worried about running out of food, while 62% actually ran out of money to buy food. When there was not enough money to buy food, 71% of adults cut back to a few kinds of cheaper food, 45% ate less than they should, and 23% went without food for a day or more.

"Very hungry" go to food banks

The "very hungry" were the most dependent on institutional support when they ran out of money to buy food. Forty percent of people who were "very hungry" went first to the food bank when they ran out of food or money to buy food, 25% relied on a social worker, and 23% relied on friends. About 67% of those who were "hungry" or "at risk" of being hungry turned to relatives and friends for help, while 19% relied on the food bank. Many did not ask anyone to help them, from 16% of those classified as "at risk" to 22% of those classified as "very hungry".

Coping strategies

When asked to select strategies used to obtain food when money for food was running out, most adults with low

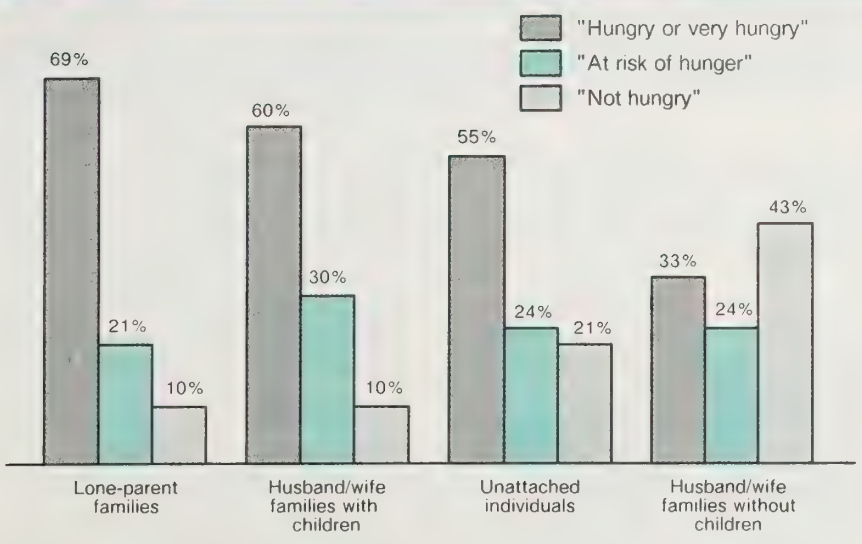
Percentage of Edmonton residents with low incomes who have tried various coping strategies, by hunger category, 1990

	Very hungry	Hungry	Not hungry
		%	
Purchase less expensive food	96	96	73
Borrow money from friends and relatives	81	72	20
Get food voucher from a social worker	70	53	14
Get food from a food bank	67	46	10
Borrow food from friends and relatives	62	55	19
Sell or pawn possessions	52	29	3
Get meal from a soup kitchen or church	30	12	0
Purchase food on credit	17	11	4

Source: Edmonton Food Policy Council.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Hunger category of Edmonton residents with low income, by family type, 1990



Source: Edmonton Food Policy Council.

Hunger scales

The Edmonton Food Policy Council developed two scales to measure how well adults and children were providing for their food needs. The scales were based on responses to a series of five questions concerning adults and five questions concerning children.

Adult hunger scale:

1) "I worry whether my food will run out before I get money to buy more."
2) "Does your household ever run out of money to buy food?
3) "Do you ever eat less than you feel you should because there is not enough money for food?
4) Do you ever cut back to eating just a few kinds of cheaper food because of not enough money?
5) Have you ever gone without food for a day or more because there was not enough money to buy food?

A respondent who answered yes to all five questions concerning adults was classified as "very hungry", those who said yes to three or four questions were "hungry", those who said yes to one or two questions were "at risk" of hunger, and those who said no to all of the questions were "not hungry".

Child hunger scale:

1) I can afford to feed my child good quality food.
2) I can afford to give my child many different kinds of food.
3) Do you ever have to cut the size of your child's meals because there is not enough money for food?
4) Is your child ever hungry because there is not enough food in the house and there is no money to buy more?
5) Has your child ever gone without food for a day or more because there was not enough money to buy food?

The child of a respondent who answered no to the first two child hunger scale questions and yes to the last three would be classified as "very hungry".

[1] The Edmonton Food Policy Council, Dr. K. Olson, Project Co-ordinator, #1808, 10065 Jasper Ave., Edmonton, Alberta, T5J 3B1.

incomes indicated that they have purchased less expensive food. The majority of "hungry" and "very hungry" adults indicated that they have also borrowed money or food from friends and relatives.

Institutional support was also common among those classified as "hungry" or "very hungry". More than one-half of these had obtained food vouchers from a social worker, while almost one-half had gone to a food bank.

Selling or pawning possessions to get money to purchase food (52%), going to a soup kitchen for a meal (30%), or purchasing food on credit (17%), were more common activities among those who were "very hungry".

Food shortages most common among lone parents

Families with children who are in a low-income situation, especially lone-parent families, have the most difficulty securing food. Among people with low incomes, 69% of lone-parent households and 60% of two-parent households were "hungry" or "very hungry". Fifty-five percent of unattached individuals and 33% of couples without children were "hungry" or "very hungry".

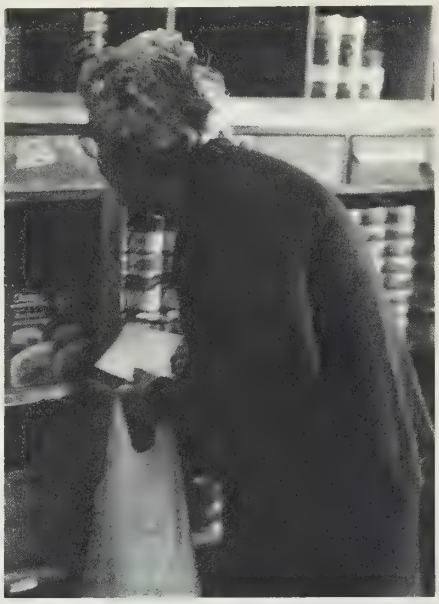
Hungry children

Two-thirds of households with children had adults who were classified as "hungry" or "very hungry", while the children in these families were mainly "at risk" of hunger (49%) with only 17% "hungry". Still, 56% of the children living with adults who were "very hungry" were classified as "hungry".

One-half of families with low incomes in Edmonton could not afford to give their children good quality food or a variety of food, and 18% cut the size of their children's meals because there was not enough food. In Edmonton, 15% of households reported that their children were hungry, but almost none reported that their children went without food for a day or more. Children in families receiving welfare benefits or those not living in subsidized housing tended to be higher on the hunger scale.

Welfare families insecure

People receiving welfare (social assistance) were twice as likely as other people with low incomes to be classified as "hungry" or "very hungry". Seventy-four percent of households receiving welfare benefits were "hungry" or "very hungry". The majority (56%) of low-income households with at least one employed member were also hungry.



Shelter costs a problem

Households with low incomes whose members were not living in subsidized housing were twice as likely as those in subsidized housing to be classified as "very hungry". Those with low incomes who were living in subsidized housing paid an average of 34% of their gross monthly income for shelter and utilities, while those not in subsidized housing spent 48%.

Solutions chosen by respondents

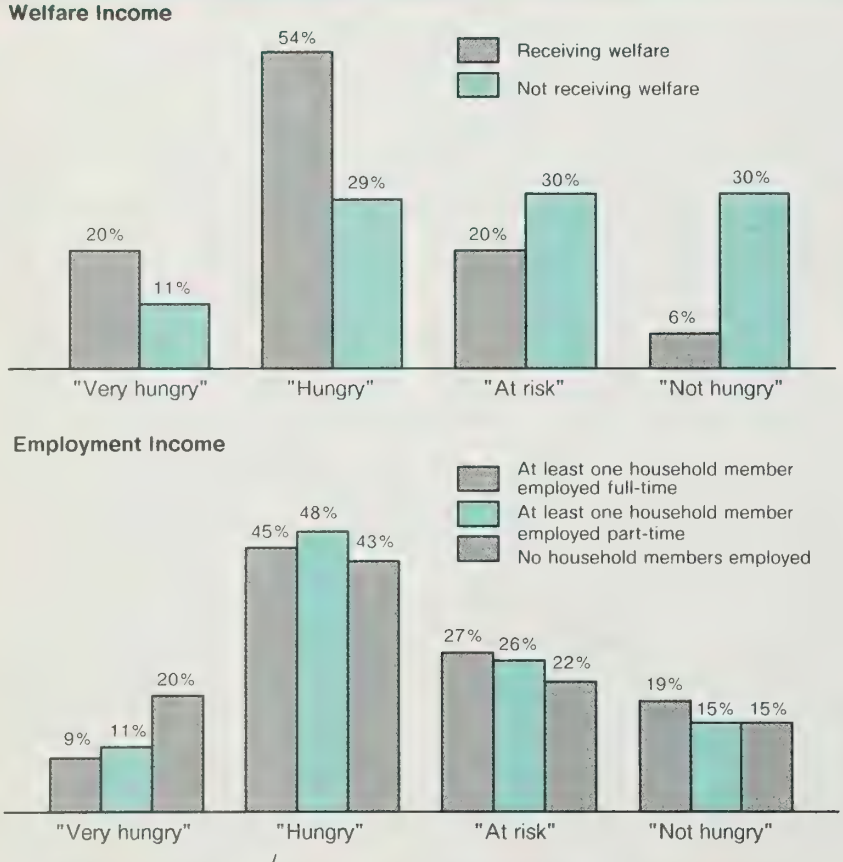
Respondents were asked what would help them feed themselves and their families better. Answers included having a job (22%), higher welfare benefits (20%), lower cost of living or lower food costs (17%), more education or training (13%), higher wages (12%), lower cost housing or utilities (8%), and other needs (8%).

When asked what it would take to ensure that they would always have enough good food to eat, 69% said more money, 33% said a job or a better job, and 14% said help with shopping or planning.

Jillian Oderkirk *is an Assistant Editor with* Canadian Social Trends. *Research assistance was provided by Katherine Nessner.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Hunger category of Edmonton residents with low income, by source of income, 1990



Source: Edmonton Food Policy Council.

CANADA'S IMMIGRANT CHILDREN

by Mary Anne Burke



Canada's demographic profile is changing rapidly. The country's elderly population is increasing both in number and as a proportion of all Canadians, while the percentage of children is decreasing. In addition, Canada's fertility rate remains relatively low. If such trends continue and immigration levels remain as they were during the 1980s, the overall size of the population, as well as the labour force, is expected to diminish.

Immigration is one of the levers a government can use to influence the size of its population. Accordingly, Canada developed a five-year immigration plan moderately increasing the number of immigrants each year. As well, provisions were made for shifting the distribution of immigrants by source country and immigration class.

More immigrant children

If immigration proceeds according to the five-year plan, an increase in the number of children under age 15 can be expected. More than 300,000 children from diverse countries, with unique cultural and linguistic backgrounds can be expected to arrive in Canada from 1990 to 1995, up considerably from 160,000 children between 1984 and 1989. If recent trends persist, most of these children will live in the large metropolitan areas of Ontario, Quebec and British Columbia, and many will live in a low-income situation.

Most go to Ontario

Between 1990 and 1995, the vast majority of immigrant children are expected to settle in Ontario, Quebec and British Columbia. An estimated 55% of all immigrant children are expected to live in Ontario, 18% in Quebec, and 12% in British Columbia. Alberta is expected to take in 8%, Manitoba, 3%, and Saskatchewan and the Atlantic provinces, 2% each.

This is quite different from the provincial distribution of all Canadian children.

In 1990, 36% of all Canadian children lived in Ontario, 24% in Quebec, 11% in British Columbia and Alberta, 9% in the Atlantic provinces, and 4% in Saskatchewan and Manitoba.

Most immigrant children are expected to live in Canada's large Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs). In fact, the three largest CMAs are expected to be home to two-thirds of all immigrant children: 40% in Toronto, 16% in Montreal and 10% in Vancouver.

Most school age

Of the 310,884 children expected to immigrate to Canada between 1990 and 1995, 73% (226,945) will be aged 5-14, and the remaining 27% (83,939) under age 5. Provincially, the distribution will be much the same. Only Saskatchewan and the Atlantic provinces are expected to have fewer immigrant children aged 5-14 (67% and 68%, respectively), and more preschool children (33% and 32%, respectively) than the Canadian average.

At the CMA level, only Ottawa-Hull and Edmonton are expected to have fewer immigrant children aged 5-14 (68% and 70%) than the national figure. About three-quarters of immigrant children going to Montreal (76%), Toronto (75%) and Vancouver (75%) will be of school age.

Diverse origins

Children coming to Canada as immigrants between 1990 and 1995 are expected to have quite diverse origins. By far, the largest proportion will have been born in Asia (47%), followed by Europe (27%). The Caribbean and Central and South Americas will have been the birthplace of 16% of immigrant children. Much smaller proportions will have been born in Africa (5%), the United States (4%) and Oceania (less than 1%).

This represents a substantial shift since 1981, when Europe was the birthplace of the largest proportion of immigrant children (40%), followed by Asia (32%), the Caribbean and Central and South Americas (11%), the United States (7%), Africa (4%) and Oceania (1%).

In all provinces, most immigrant children are expected to come from Asia and Europe. However, the distribution of children born in specific areas will differ considerably by province. For example, 66% of all immigrant children going to British Columbia between 1990 and 1995 are expected to have been born in Asia, while this will be the case for just 34% of immigrant children going to the Atlantic provinces.

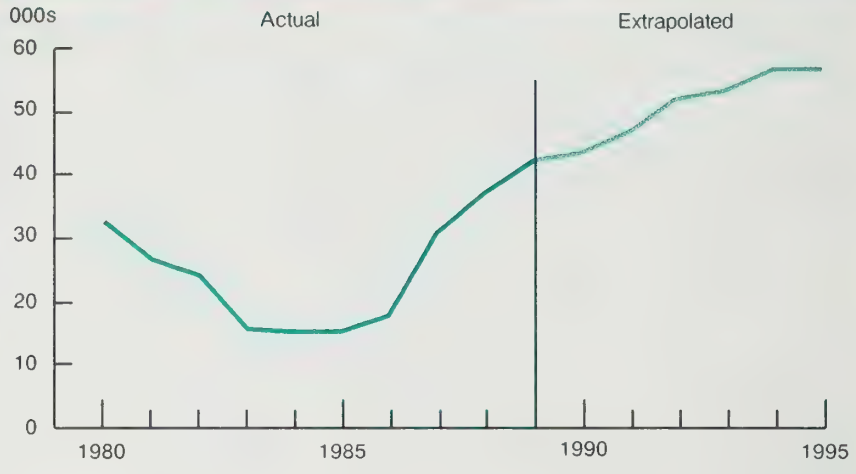
European origins are expected to be highest among immigrant children going to the Atlantic provinces, with 33%

Methodology

Estimates of the number of children coming to Canada as immigrants between 1990 and 1995 were based on the immigration targets set by Employment and Immigration Canada, assuming that the proportion of children in the various immigration streams would be similar to trends in recent years. Assumptions, therefore, were based on the average proportion of children in the immigration streams in the three most recent years — 1987, 1988 and 1989. Recent political upheavals and more liberal citizenship rules in eastern European countries, or other as yet unforeseen developments could, of course, affect the validity of these assumptions and estimates of future immigrants.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

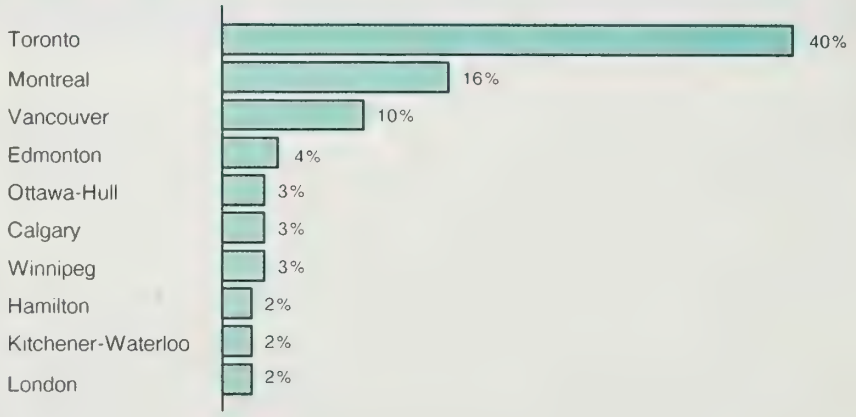
Number of immigrant children, 1980-1995



Source: Employment and Immigration Canada, unpublished data and extrapolations.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Distribution of immigrant children, by top 10 Census Metropolitan Areas, 3-year average, 1987-1989



Source: Employment and Immigration Canada, unpublished data.

A Trend to a Healthier Lifestyle

by Wayne Millar

Canadians are taking better care of themselves today than they did just a few years ago. They are smoking less, drinking less, and exercising more. Yet at the same time, the picture is not entirely positive. While overall smoking rates have declined, this is not the case among women, particularly those in younger age groups. Also, despite increased physical activity, the percentage of people who are overweight has increased.



SMOKING

Over the past 25 years, the proportion of Canadians who are regular smokers has declined. In 1991, about 5.4 million people, 26% of the population aged 15 and over, smoked daily, down from 41% in 1966. However, while the rate among men dropped sharply from 54% in 1966 to 26% in 1991, the percentage of smokers among women dipped only slightly from 28% to 26%. As a result, the smoking rates of men and women have now converged.

In fact, at ages 15-19, the smoking rate of women exceeded that of men. In 1991, 20% of the women in this age group, compared with 12% of the men, were regular smokers. Moreover, while the proportion of smokers among men aged 15-19 declined since 1966, the smoking rate for their female contemporaries rose.

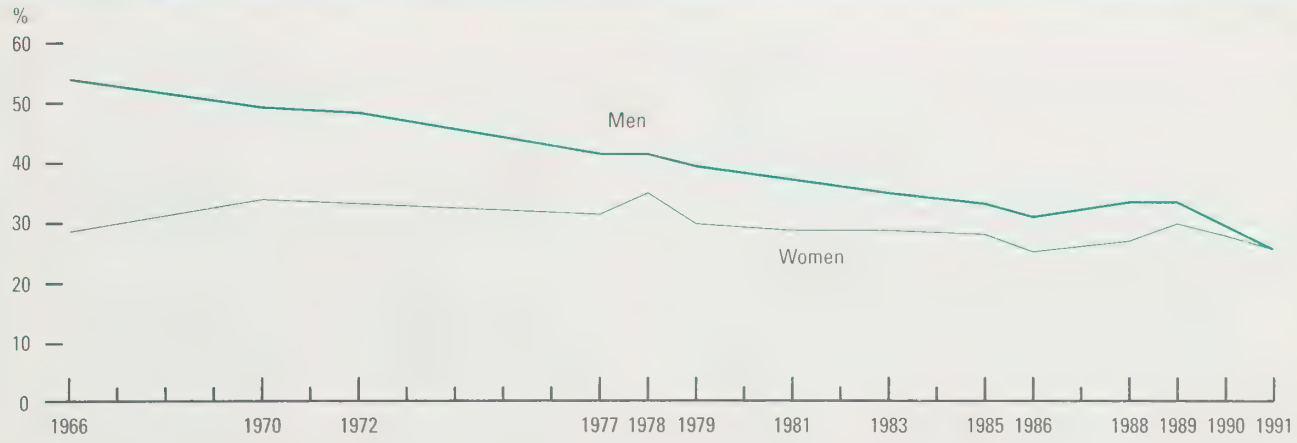
The proportion of daily smokers tends to be highest at ages 20-44, with men somewhat more likely than women to smoke regularly. In 1991, 32% of men and 29% of women in this age range were regular smokers. Rates were somewhat lower among 45-64-year-olds, but there was little difference between the smoking rates of men and women: 25% of men and 28% of women were regular smokers.

At ages 65 and over, the smoking rate of men exceeded that of women. As well, people in this age group are the least likely to be regular smokers. In 1991, 15% of men and 12% of women aged 65 and over smoked daily. For men, the smoking rate was more than halved from 32% in 1966. However, for women aged 65 and over, this marked an increase from just 8% in 1966.

Within the next five years, it is probable that smoking may be more prevalent among women than among men. Past differences in the percentages of men and women who were regular smokers reflected the relatively low smoking rates of older women. But as women who are now smokers move into the older age groups, the resultant increase in the rate of smoking among older women will raise the proportion of reguiar smokers in the female population overall.

The decline of smoking rates in the total adult population is reflected in a drop in tobacco sales. During the 1980-1990 period, there was a 35% decline in tobacco consumption as measured by the estimated number of cigarettes smoked per day by people aged 15 and over. This sharp drop in cigarette consumption has been attributed to public health efforts as well as to increasing levels of taxation on tobacco products.

AGE-ADJUSTED SMOKING RATES FOR POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER, BY SEX, CANADA, 1966-1991



Note: Data are for regular smokers, and are adjusted for differences in age distribution across time.
Source: General Social Survey 1985 and 1991, Labour Force Survey Supplements on Smoking Habits, and other selected health surveys.

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada



ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION

The majority of Canadians consume alcohol, but the proportion of drinkers is declining. In 1991, 11.6 million people, 55% of the population aged 15 and over, were "current drinkers," in that they consumed alcohol at least once a month. This level of consumption was down from 65% in 1978. There were, however, wide variations in the prevalence of drinking and the amount of alcohol consumed. Men were more likely than women to be drinkers, and men who were drinkers tended to consume more alcohol than did their female counterparts.

For both sexes, drinking peaks at ages 20-24 and then declines with advancing age. In 1991, 80% of men and 58% of women aged 20-24 were current drinkers. The corresponding figures at ages 25-44 were 76% and 50%, and at ages 45-64, 65% and 40%. By age 65 and over, the proportion of current drinkers was just 49% among men and 27% among women. The percentage of drinkers was also comparatively low among 15-19-year-olds: 47% of men and 38% of women were current drinkers.

Heavy drinking is relatively rare among Canadians. In 1991, 10% of adults who were current drinkers had 14 or more drinks a week. Heavy drinking was more common among men (15% of current drinkers) than among women (4%), a disparity that prevailed at all ages. However, there were variations in the ages at which men and women tended to drink heavily. For men, heavy drinking was most prevalent at ages 20-24. In 1991, 19% of men in this age range consumed 14 or more drinks a week. Next most likely to be heavy drinkers were men aged 65 and over, 16% of whom reported this level of consumption. The proportions were slightly lower among men aged 25-44 (14%) and 45-64 (15%). Men aged 15-19 were least likely to be heavy drinkers; just 13% of them reported 14 or more drinks a week in 1991. On the other hand, among women, heavy drinking peaked at ages 15-19 (7% of current drinkers). The proportion of female drinkers who consumed 14 or more drinks a week was 4% at ages 25-64, and among those aged 65 and over, the percentage of heavy drinkers was 3%.

Although Canadians drank more moderately in 1991 than in the past, the proportion of people who never drank actually declined. In 1991, just 9% of adults reported that they had never consumed alcohol, down from 11% in 1978. This drop in non-drinkers, however, was more than offset by an increase in people who had given up drinking. By 1991, 12% of the adult population were former drinkers, compared with 4% in 1978.

Alcohol sales in recent years mirror the decline in consumption. Sales of alcoholic beverages amounted to 123.2 litres per capita of population aged 15 and over in 1987, down from 128.2 litres in 1983.



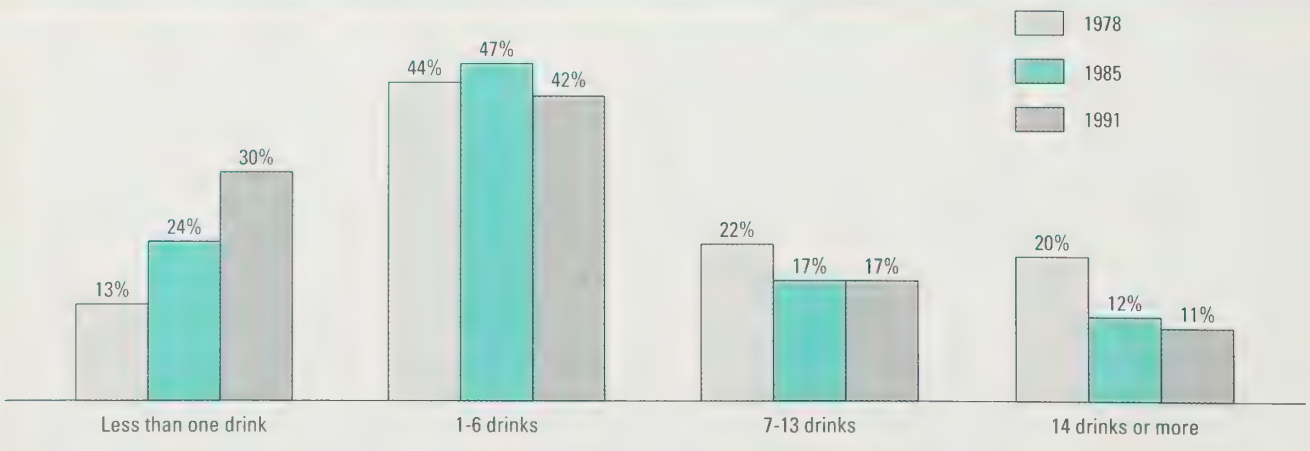
PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

Canadians of all ages reported an increased level of physical activity compared with just a few years ago. In 1991, based on the energy they typically expended in leisure pursuits, 6.7 million Canadians aged 15 and over, 32% of the adult population, were "physically very active." This was up from 1985, when about 27% of adults were defined as very active. Moreover, the increase in physical activity was evident among people of all ages.

The physically active component of the population is highest among young people and declines with advancing age. In 1991, 55% of 15-24-year-olds were physically active, compared with 36% of people aged 24-44, 21% of those aged 45-64, and 12% of people aged 65 and over. In all cases, however, these figures represented an increase from 1985. For instance, that year, the physically active share of the population ranged from 48% at ages 15-24 to 10% at age 65 and over.

Men are more likely than women to be physically active. In 1991, 39% of men and 26% of women were physically active. For both sexes, this was an increase from 1985, when the corresponding figures had been 31% and 23%. However, among women, from 1985 to 1991, there was an increase in the physically active component of each age group. By contrast, for men, the physically active share rose substantially among those aged 25-64, increased moderately at ages 15-24, and the proportion of men aged 65 and over who were physically active actually declined. Nonetheless, in each age group, a higher percentage of men than women were physically active in 1991.

PROPORTION OF CURRENT DRINKERS AGED 15 AND OVER, BY WEEKLY VOLUME, CANADA, 1978, 1985 AND 1991



Note: Proportions have been recalculated to exclude the unknown category from the total.
Source: General Social Survey 1985 and 1991, and Canada Health Survey 1978-79.



WEIGHT

Despite increased levels of physical activity in recent years, the proportion of Canadian adults who are overweight has risen. In 1991, approximately 3.7 million people aged 20-64 were overweight according to Health and Welfare Canada standards. This estimate represented 23% of the population aged 20-64 in 1991, whereas in 1985, 17% of people in this age range had been overweight.

Classifying individuals as overweight is based on their weight relative to their height. Since this ratio is derived from self-reported information, there is a possibility of misclassification.

The proportion of people who are overweight tends to rise with advancing age. In 1991, just 10% of 20-24-year-olds were overweight, whereas at ages 25-44, the proportion was more than double at 21%. The likelihood of being overweight was highest at ages 45-64, with almost a third (32%) of this group weighing more than was recommended for people of their height.

Men are more likely than women to be overweight. In 1991, 28% of men, compared with 18% of women, were overweight. However, the difference between the overweight proportions of the male and female populations diminished at successively older ages. Among 20-24-year-olds, 13% of men and 7% of women were overweight; by ages 45-64, 36% and 27%, respectively.

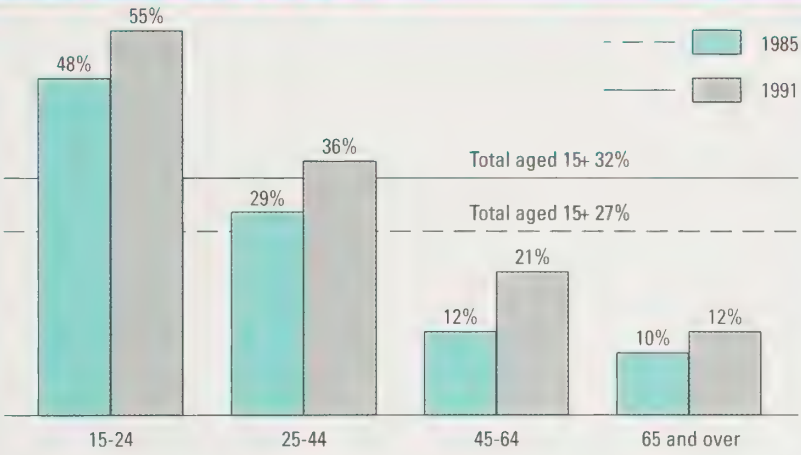
While a substantial share of Canadian adults are carrying more weight than is healthy for them, another relatively large group may be underweight. However, being underweight tends to be concentrated among women in younger age groups.

Overall, in 1991, 9% of Canadians aged 20-64 were underweight, although the proportion of women in this category (15%) was five times greater than the figure for men (3%). As well, women younger than age 45 were more likely to be underweight than overweight. At ages 20-24, 25% of women were underweight, compared with 7% who were overweight. For those aged 25-44, the underweight component (17%) slightly exceeded the proportion who were overweight (15%). But after age 45, relatively few women were underweight (9%), and they were vastly outnumbered by their overweight counterparts (27%).

A substantial share of Canadian women whose weight falls within an acceptable range in relation to their height consider themselves to be too heavy. In 1991, fully 36% of women whose weight was normal believed that they were overweight. Men of normal weight were less likely than women to perceive themselves as weighing too much; the corresponding figure among men was 12%.

Wayne Millar *is a senior analyst with the Canadian Centre for Health Information, Statistics Canada.*

PROPORTION OF POPULATION AGED 15 AND OVER WHO WERE VERY ACTIVE, BY AGE GROUP, CANADA, 1985 AND 1991



Source: General Social Survey 1985 and 1991.

PROPORTION OF POPULATION AGED 20-64 WHO WERE OVERWEIGHT, BY SEX, CANADA, 1985 AND 1991



Source: General Social Survey 1985 and 1991.

NEW DATA FROM THE 1991 GENERAL SOCIAL SURVEY

General Social Survey

1991 Cycle

Health Core Content

Since 1985, the annual General Social Survey (GSS) has provided policy makers and analysts with national statistics on the living conditions and well-being of Canadians. The objectives of the GSS are to monitor changes in Canadian society over time and to produce information on specific policy issues of current or emerging interest.

The GSS operates on a five-year cycle, each year examining one of five subject areas, which form the core content of the survey: health, time use, accidents and criminal victimization, education and work, and friends and family. Cycle 6, conducted in 1991, was the first cycle to return to previous core content: health (1985).

Most of the core content in Cycle 6 repeats Cycle 1. And because much of the core content was also covered in the 1978-79 Canada Health Survey, the three surveys can be used to measure changes in health status over time.

Cycle 6 provides a range of measures of health status, health care utilization, and lifestyle risk factors.

TOPICS INCLUDE:

- ❑ self-perceived health status
- ❑ long- and short-term disability
- ❑ consultations with health professionals
- ❑ alcohol consumption, smoking,
- ❑ physical activity, sleep patterns,
- ❑ weight
- ❑ satisfaction with health

As well as the repeating core content, each GSS cycle includes focus questions on specific subjects, sponsored by federal or provincial government departments or other user groups. Focus content for Cycle 6 covered flu vaccinations, job benefits, old age and disability income, and measures of emotional health.

The GSS collects data from a sample of approximately 10,000 households. The target population includes all persons aged 15 and over, except full-time residents of institutions and residents of the Yukon and Northwest Territories. For Cycle 6, the regular GSS sample, selected by random digit dialling, was augmented by an oversample of the population aged 65 and over. A total of 11,924 persons were interviewed and answered the questionnaire, yielding a response rate of 80%. In 1991, for the first time, data were collected over twelve months instead of two or three to account for seasonal variations in many health and lifestyle issues.

This summary of trends lifestyle risk factors is the first data release from Cycle 6. It is published as a supplement to both **Canadian Social Trends** and **Health Reports**.

A Public Use Microdata File will be available by summer. As well, more detailed analyses will be presented in future issues of **Health Reports**. A major publication analyzing survey results is planned for release in the winter of 1992-93.

A document describing Cycle 6 is now available as General Social Survey Working Paper #4: Overview of 1991 General Social Survey on Health. For more information, call (613) 951-9180.

Canada's five-year immigration plan

Employment and Immigration Canada's (EIC) Annual Report to Parliament, tabled in October 1990, set out a five-year immigration plan outlining the number of immigrants to be admitted under each of six immigration classes: family class; refugees; independent immigrants; assisted relatives; business immigrants; and retirees. As well, it proposed targets by world region.

Immigrants may come to Canada either as sponsored family members, refugees, or independent applicants. Since 1967, independent applicants have been rated on a point system based on their age, education, training and occupational skills, demand for the applicant's occupation in Canada, existence of prearranged employment, and knowledge of one of Canada's official languages. Prearranged employment and knowledge of French or English are waived if the applicants have relatives in Canada willing to help them relocate and settle. These people are still considered independent applicants, but fall into the assisted relative category. Also included in the independent category are business immigrants — either self-employed or entrepreneurial applicants — who earn extra points if they are able to invest capital in Canada, creating employment for themselves and others.

1991-1995 Immigration plan

Component		Estimated[1] 1990	Planned				
			1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Family class	Total	72,500	80,000	100,000	95,000	85,000	85,000
	0-14	10,435	11,656	14,391	13,673	12,234	12,234
Refugees							
Government-assisted refugees and members of designated classes (selected abroad)	Total	13,000	13,000	13,000	13,000	13,000	13,000
	0-14	3,470	3,470	3,470	3,470	3,470	3,470
Privately sponsored refugees and members of designated classes (selected abroad) and refugees landed in Canada (after Jan.1, 1989)	Total	29,000	33,500	45,000	45,000	40,000	40,000
	0-14	6,232	7,199	9,671	9,671	10,767	10,767
Independent immigrants							
Principal applicants	Total	19,500	20,000	21,500	22,500	29,000	29,000
Spouses and other accompanying dependents	Total	25,500	21,000	20,000	25,000	33,000	33,000
	0-14	11,264	10,261	10,387	11,887	15,517	15,517
Assisted relatives							
Principal applicants	Total	7,000	7,000	7,000	8,500	11,500	11,500
Spouses and other accompanying dependents	Total	11,000	12,500	12,500	15,000	19,000	19,000
	0-14	5,309	5,753	5,753	6,935	9,000	9,000
Business immigrants							
Principal applicants	Total	5,000	7,000	7,000	6,500	5,000	5,000
Spouses and other accompanying dependents	Total	13,500	21,000	21,000	19,500	14,500	14,500
	0-14	6,831	8,618	8,618	8,002	6,003	6,003
Retirees	Total	4,000	5,000	3,000	0	0	0
	0-14	159	198	119	0	0	0
Total	Total	200,000	220,000	250,000	250,000	250,000	250,000
	0-14	43,700	47,155	52,409	53,638	56,991	56,991

[1] Preliminary EIC data for 1990 show a total of 214,227 immigrants, 45,465 of whom were under age 15.

Source: Employment and Immigration Canada, *Annual Report to Parliament: Immigration for 1991-1995*, October 1990, and unpublished extrapolations based on EIC data.

having been born in Europe. The proportion is expected to be lowest in British Columbia (17%). Eighteen percent of immigrant children destined for Ontario and Quebec are expected to have been born in Central and South Americas, while the proportion destined for British Columbia likely will be only 6%. African origins are expected to be most common among immigrant children going to Quebec (11%) and Saskatchewan (8%), and least common among those going to British Columbia (3%).

Socio-economic characteristics

Shifting patterns of immigration will undoubtably mean that the socio-economic profile of immigrants arriving in Canada will be different from that in the past. Nevertheless, the knowledge available about recent Canadian immigrants helps to give an indication of the characteristics of immigrants expected to arrive during the 1990-1995 period.

Many speak neither English nor French

It is expected that many immigrant children will have to learn one of Canada's official languages after arriving in Canada, as many may be unfamiliar with both English and French. This is likely to be especially true for preschool children who have little exposure to people outside the family.

According to the 1986 Census, languages other than English and French were the mother tongue (language first spoken and still understood) of 40% of all immigrant children living in Canada. Twenty-nine percent of immigrant children spoke a language other than English or French at home. The figures for preschool children were higher at 43% and 40%, respectively. With more immigrants coming to Canada from countries where a language other than English or French is spoken, it is expected that these proportions will be even higher for the 1990-1995 period.

Considerable provincial variation is expected to exist in the proportion of immigrant children not familiar with one of Canada's official languages. In 1986, immigrant children with languages other than English or French as their mother tongue and home language were most prevalent in Manitoba (51% and 36%, respectively) and least prevalent in the Atlantic provinces (18% and 11%, respectively).

Among immigrant children living in Canada's CMAs in 1986, less variation existed. That year, Winnipeg had the highest proportion of immigrant children with neither English nor French as a mother tongue (51%), while Ottawa-Hull had the lowest (40%). Montreal had the most immigrant children without an English or French home language (40%) and Hamilton had the fewest (26%).

Less likely to be in lone-parent families

A slightly smaller percentage of immigrant children than Canadian children overall are expected to be in lone-parent families. In 1986, 12% of all immigrant children were in lone-parent families, compared with 14% of all Canadian children. In large part, this is a reflection of the point system used to admit immigrants to Canada. With the current emphasis in immigration policy on selecting business immigrants and skilled workers, lone parents, typically women, are likely to continue to be underrepresented in all but the family and refugee classes of immigrants.

Provincially, the proportion of immigrant children in lone-parent families was close to the national figure in 1986, ranging from 11% to 14%, with the exception of Quebec. In that province, 18% of immigrant children lived in lone-parent families. This reflects the high proportion of immigrants who came to Quebec as refugees from African nations, as well as those from the Caribbean where lone-parent families are more common.

It is expected that there will be more variation in the prevalence of immigrant children in lone-parent families by CMA. In 1986, Montreal had the highest concentration of immigrant children in lone-parent families (18%), followed by Ottawa-Hull (15%). London, at 9%, had the lowest concentration.

Parents' educational levels varied

It is expected that many immigrant children will have parents with a university education, given the current policy of awarding points on the basis of education to people wishing to immigrate to Canada. Nonetheless, many are also expected to have parents with less than a Grade 9 education. This is because many people come to Canada as refugees or under the family re-unification program, where educational level is not used as a selection criteria.

Integration into Canadian life is likely to be difficult for children whose parents have low levels of education. Many of their parents may lack the knowledge and skills to tap into local support systems, or to obtain well-paying jobs.

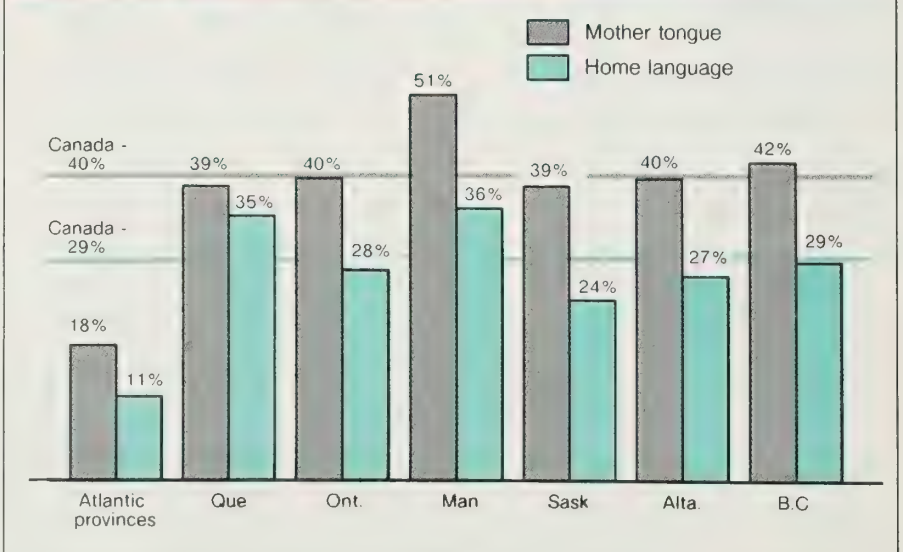
In 1986, 27% of immigrant children had one parent with a university education, while 11% had two university-educated parents. At the same time, 23% had one parent, and 11% had two parents, with less than a Grade 9 education.

Immigrant children with highly educated parents were most common in Saskatchewan and Atlantic Canada. In both regions, 32% had one university-educated parent. In the Atlantic provinces, 16% had two parents with a university degree, compared with 13% in Saskatchewan. The other provinces were close to national levels.

At the same time, immigrant children whose parents had low levels of education were least concentrated in Saskatchewan and the Atlantic provinces. Similar proportions of these children in Saskatchewan

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Immigrant children with language other than English or French, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada, unpublished data.

(16%) and the Atlantic provinces (17%) had one parent with less than Grade 9. Just 5% of immigrant children in both areas had two parents with less than a Grade 9 education.

Immigrant children with less highly educated parents were most prevalent in Manitoba and Quebec. In 1986, 38% of immigrant children in Manitoba had one parent with less than a Grade 9 education and 23% had two. Comparable figures for Quebec were 30% and 13%.

Of those in CMAs, immigrant children in Ottawa-Hull came from the most highly educated families. In 1986, 43% of immigrant children had one university-educated parent and 18% had two. Twenty percent had one parent with less than a Grade 9 education and only 9% had two.

In comparison, the concentration of immigrant children with parents with low levels of education was highest in Kitchener-Waterloo. In 1986, just 18% of immigrant children in that CMA had one parent with a university education, while 7% had two. In addition, 36% had one parent with less than Grade 9, and 23% had two.

Immigrant children in lone-parent families were less likely than others to have a well-educated parent. In 1986, just 13% of immigrant children in lone-parent families had a parent with a university degree, while 17% had a parent with less than Grade 9.

Most have working parents

It is expected that most immigrant children will have working parents. The admission selection criteria favour independent applicants who have secured employment in Canada. For refugees and family class immigrants seeking landed immigrant status, having a job is also an important factor. Considerable variation is expected by province, CMA, and family type.

In 1986, 52% of immigrant children in husband/wife families had both their parents working and another 38% had one working parent. By comparison, in 1988, both parents of 64% of Canadian children were employed. As well, 61% of immigrant children in lone-parent families had a working parent, compared with 69% of all Canadian children in lone-parent families.

Immigrant children in Ontario were the most likely to have working parents. In 1986, 58% of those in husband/wife families had two working parents, and 36% had one. As well, 68% of those in lone-parent families had a working parent. Immigrant children in Quebec were the least likely to have a parent working. In 1986, 45% of immigrant children in two-parent families had two parents working and 41% had one parent working. Just 51% of children in lone-parent families had a working parent.

At the CMA level, immigrant children in Toronto, Winnipeg and Kitchener-Waterloo were the most likely to have working parents. In 1986, 68% of those in Kitchener-Waterloo and 61% of those in Toronto and Winnipeg had two working parents. Another 34% in Toronto, 33% in Winnipeg, and 25% in Kitchener-Waterloo had one parent working. Immigrant children in lone-parent families in London (77%) and Ottawa-Hull (71%) were the most likely to have a working parent. Immigrant children in Montreal were the least likely of those in CMAs to have a parent working. In 1986, 45% of immigrant children in husband/wife families in Montreal had two parents working, and 42% had one working parent. Just 47% of immigrant children in lone-parent families in Montreal had a parent working.

Low income common

Many immigrant children are expected to live in families with low incomes. During the relocation and settlement period, many immigrants may not be able to find employment or will take low-paying jobs for which they are overqualified. In 1985, almost one-third (31%) of all immigrant children were in low-income families, compared with 19% of Canadian children overall.Children in lone-parent families are expected to be particularly vulnerable to low-income situations, since it often takes more than one job, especially if it is a low-paying one, to make ends meet. Again, variation by province and CMA is expected.

In 1985, more children in lone-parent than in two-parent families had low family incomes. That year, 58% of immigrant children in lone-parent families, compared with 28% of their counterparts in husband/wife families, were in families whose incomes were below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs;[1] comparable figures for all Canadian children were 64% and 14%, respectively.

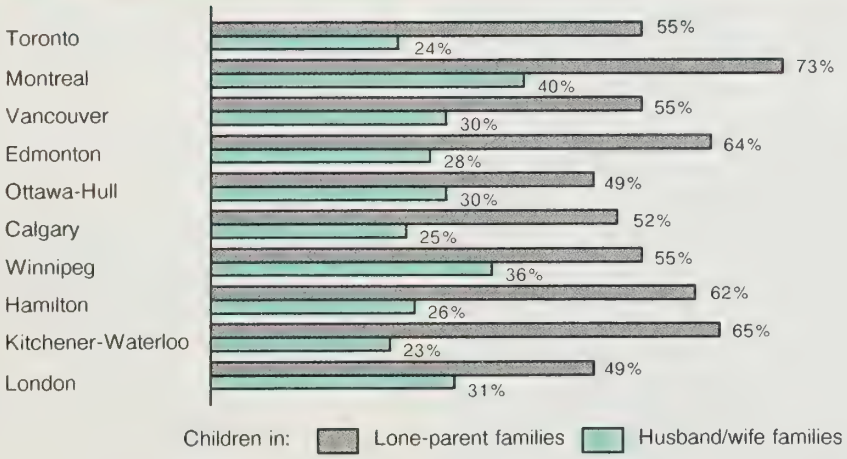
At the provincial level, immigrant children in lone-parent families in Quebec were the most likely to live in a low-income situation. In 1985, almost 70% of lone-parent immigrant children in Quebec lived in families with low incomes. Immigrant children in husband/wife families in Ontario and the Atlantic provinces were the least likely to have low incomes. In 1985, one-quarter of these children lived in low-income families.

Quebec and Manitoba had the highest proportion of immigrant children in husband/wife families living below the Low Income Cut-offs. In 1985, almost 40% of these children were in families with low incomes.

Immigrant children living in Montreal were the most likely of those living in a CMA to be in a low-income situation. Nearly half (46%) of immigrant children in Montreal

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Immigrant children in low-income families, by top 10 Census Metropolitan Areas, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada, unpublished data.

[1] These define individuals or families as having low incomes if the household unit spends more than 53.5% of income on food, shelter, and clothing.



were in families with incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs in 1985. Among children in lone-parent families, 73% were in a low-income family, compared with 40% of those in two-parent families.

Of those in lone-parent families, immigrant children in Ottawa-Hull and London fared best financially. Still, half (49%) of these children were in low-income families in 1985. And, of those in husband/wife families, immigrant children in Kitchener-Waterloo, Calgary and Hamilton were least likely to be in a low-income situation. Still, nearly one-quarter of these children lived in low-income families.

Conclusion

The future course of immigration to Canada is likely to involve the arrival of substantial numbers of people who possess neither the language skills nor the socio-economic background to make an easy transition to full participation in Canadian life. This situation has arisen because immigration flows to Canada increasingly have included people coming from lesser-developed countries, many as refugees. While a continuation of this shift is by no means inevitable, the rising numbers of immigrants, combined with wide discrepancies in cultural practices between many new immigrants and the receiving society, suggest that immigrant accommodation may be more challenging in the future than it has been in the past. As the number of immigrant children grows, demand for institutional and private support services will likely increase, resulting in higher costs. Given the shift in ethnic origins and cultural practices, the provision of assistance in the integration process for all new immigrants, and especially for the younger component, will, in all probability, occupy a more prominent place in the future list of competing claims on societal resources.

Mary Anne Burke *is an Editor with* Canadian Social Trends. *Research assistance was provided by Ryan J. McDonald.*

- For further information on this topic, see "Immigrant children in Canada" a paper presented by T. John Samuel (Employment and Immigration) and Ravi B.P. Verma (Statistics Canada) at the Symposium on Immigrant Settlement and Integration, Toronto, Ontario, May 28-29, 1990.

MOTOR VEHICLES AND AIR POLLUTION

by Alan Goodall



Motor vehicles in general, and automobiles in particular, continue to be a major source of air pollution in Canada. Although emissions have been regulated since the early 1970s, motor vehicles remain the largest source of several pollutants that adversely affect human health and the environment. Most Canadians, particularly those in urban areas, continue to be exposed to potentially harmful levels of these pollutants.

Despite a growing number of vehicles, the average concentrations of these pollutants has declined since the 1970s — largely as a result of motor vehicle emissions regulations. However, unless new strategies for emission reduction are adopted, current pollution levels are expected to increase as the motor vehicle fleet continues to grow.

Consistent with recommended emission reduction strategies, programs to deal with anticipated emission problems are now in the planning or early implementation stages. Among others, current efforts include attempts to further increase the use of alternatives to private motor vehicle transportation, and to further reduce the emissions output of individual vehicles.

Emissions and effects

Canadian federal and provincial agencies have been jointly monitoring national air pollution levels since the 1970s. Following the passing of the Clean Air Act in 1971 and the subsequent introduction of emission standards and controls for industry and motor vehicles, Canadian air quality has improved notably. However, because most Canadians (76%) live in or near major urban centres and use motor vehicles, they are still exposed to potentially harmful concentrations of some air pollutants.

Four common air contaminants are carbon monoxide, nitrogen oxides, hydrocarbons, and ground-level ozone. Together, in high concentrations, these four pollutants are known to affect pulmonary function, suppress the immune system, and have toxic and carcinogenic effects. They can also suppress or otherwise affect vegetation growth, corrode metals, fade fabric dies, degrade rubber products, textile fibres and polyurethanes, and contribute to the formation of acid rain. In addition, they are believed to contribute toward global warming and depletion of the ozone layer.

While the above four pollutants also originate from other sources, Environment Canada reports that a large share of each, and in some cases the greatest single share, is directly linked to the motor vehicles Canadians drive.

More vehicles, more drivers

Despite pollution problems associated with motor vehicle emissions, the number of vehicles on Canadian roads is growing. In 1989, there were 16.7 million registered vehicles on the road in Canada, 26% more than a decade earlier (13.3 million in 1979). Of these, 77% (12.8 million) were passenger automobiles in 1989.

While the number of Canadians with cars is increasing, the percentage of households owning a car has remained relatively stable since 1979. From 1979 to 1989, 77% to 80% of all households owned one or more automobiles, with an average of about 1.4 cars per household (among those households with a car). In 1989, nearly 2.4 million households, 25% of all households, owned two or more cars.

The percentage of people with a driver's license is also growing. The total number of Canadians licensed to drive increased to 67% of the population in 1989 (17.6 million people), from 58% (13.7 million) in 1979. Over the same period, the number of people of age to obtain a driver's license increased by 15% to 20.4 million. Further, in 1989, 86.3% of those old enough to drive were licensed to do so, up from 77.5% in 1979. These trends can be partially explained by the aging of the Canadian population.

More personal use cars driving further

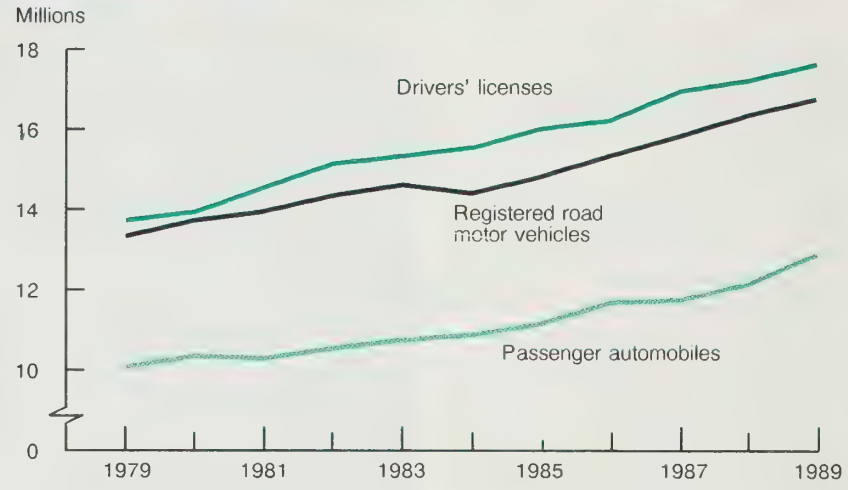
Between 1980 and 1988 (the years for which data are available), about one-half of all road vehicles — two-thirds of all cars — were personal use automobiles. These cars include passenger automobiles licensed for the survey year, and exclude rental, fleet operated, driver training, and antique vehicles. In 1988, an estimated 8.2 million cars were personal use vehicles, up from 7.1 million in 1980.

Personal use autos were estimated to have been driven a total of 141.8 billion kilometres (km) in 1988, compared with 112.9 billion in 1980. The average car was estimated to have been driven 17,380 km in 1988, the equivalent of 2.7 times from coast to coast — an average of almost 10% further than the 15,820 km driven in 1980.

Despite the increase in cars and the greater distances driven, personal use cars consumed less fuel in 1988 than they had in 1980. The average personal use car consumed about 2,090 litres of fuel in 1988, travelling approximately 8.3 km per litre burned. In comparison, during 1980, the average car consumed about 2,620 litres (6.0 km per litre). This resulted from the gradual replacement of heavier cars with large engines by lighter models with smaller engines and stricter emissions standards. In 1988, new 1987 model-year vehicles were estimated to have consumed, on

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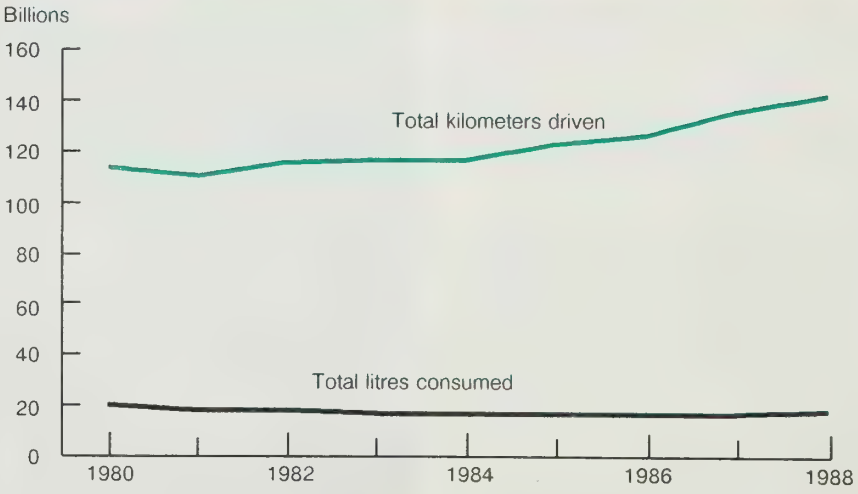
Motor vehicle registrations and drivers' licenses, 1979-1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 53-219.

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Distance driven and fuel consumed by personal use passenger cars, 1980-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 53-226.

average, 26% less fuel than the new 1979 models had in 1980 — even though the new 1987 model-year cars were, on average, driven slightly (2%) further.

Public transit use also up

With more than three-quarters of the population living in urban areas (60% in Census Metropolitan Areas — CMAs), most Canadians have access to a mass transit system. Despite the increase in cars on the road, more Canadians are riding public transit than ever before. However, it is evident that most Canadians still tend to use personal rather than public transportation.

In 1988, urban transit systems[1] carried a total of 1.5 billion passengers, up 22% from 1.2 billion in 1978. Accompanying the increase in ridership has been a growth in the number of buses and other transit vehicles. The number of buses increased to 10,720 in 1988, up 17% from 1978. The total number of all transit vehicles increased about 14% over the same period, to 13,340 in 1988. They covered a total of 749 million km in 1988, up 20% from 1978. Still, this amounted to less than 0.01% of the total distance travelled by personal use cars in 1988.

Metropolitan Toronto peak-period transit usage patterns give some indication of the extent to which urban dwellers use personal rather than public transportation.

Toronto, Canada's most populous CMA (3.8 million people — 14% of all Canadians in 1990), is serviced by the country's largest urban transit system. According to the Metropolitan Toronto Planning Department, the number of people using peak-period (morning and afternoon rush-hour) transit services increased dramatically between 1975 and 1989. However, the proportion of commuters using these services increased only modestly. For example, from 1975 to 1989, the average total number of inbound person-trips crossing the central area (traffic monitor) cordon increased 21%, while the combined proportion of those using transit and commuter rail grew only 5 percentage points. Although the proportions of people using transit or commuter rail varied by the boundary crossed (outer metro, suburban, central and extended core boundaries), direction travelled, and time of day, the differences between 1975 and 1989 were generally modest.

At all monitored boundary crossings, the overwhelming majority of vehicles were cars. This is not surprising given that, in 1989, of the 1.34 million vehicles registered in Metro Toronto, 1.17 million (88%) were cars.

Most emission levels decreasing

Motor vehicles, especially those with poorly tuned engines, are major emitters of carbon monoxide (CO). Gasoline-powered cars and trucks were estimated to have produced about 54% of all carbon monoxide emitted in Canada in 1985. However, since the introduction of the catalytic converter in 1971, and the increased fuel efficiency of newer cars, urban area CO concentrations decreased 58% between 1974 and 1987. Toronto and Calgary reported the highest CO levels in 1986, although they exceeded the eight-hour maximum acceptable level less than 1% of the time.

In 1985, transportation accounted for nearly two-thirds of all nitrogen oxide emissions. Cars and other light-duty vehicles together emitted 24% of national

[1] Urban transit systems earning $250,000 or more per year.

Bus emissions

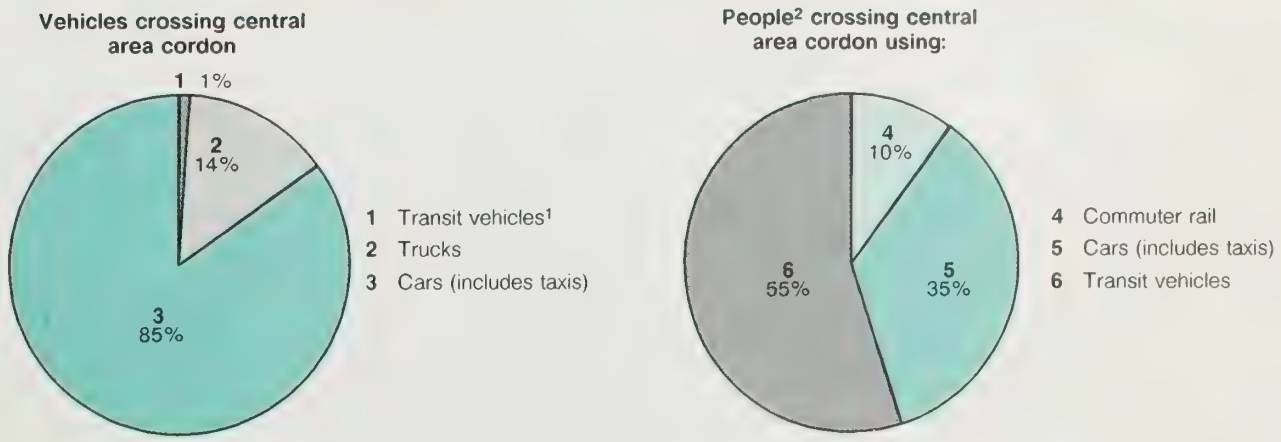
Environment Canada compared the emissions of a 1989 diesel transit bus capable of seating 43 people, and those of 43 new cars built after 1988.

Forty-three cars (carrying driver only) would produce emissions of approximately 54 times the carbon monoxide, 8.4 times the hydrocarbons and 2.4 times the nitrogen oxides produced by a bus carrying 43 people. Measured in total grams of pollutants emitted per mile, 43 cars would produce approximately eight to nine times the total emissions of one bus. The diesel bus, because of the type of fuel burned, would produce more particulate matter than the cars.

Environment Canada is currently examining alternative fuel and emission control systems that show potential to greatly reduce bus emissions.

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Metro Toronto inbound rush-hour (06:30-09:30) travel, 1989



[1] Excludes subway and commuter rail.
[2] Excludes taxi drivers.
Source: *Metro Cordon Count Program, 1989*, Metropolitan Toronto Planning Department, Transportation Division.

NO_X. However, despite a 43% increase in national NO_X emissions between 1970 and 1985, the annual average levels of nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) in urban centres have been consistently below the maximum desirable level since 1978.

Of the various oxides of nitrogen formed from motor vehicle emissions, NO_2 is the one of most concern to human health and the environment. While annual averages of NO_2 are within acceptable limits, and much lower than they once were, there are still occasions when those limits are exceeded. Between 1974 and 1987, average urban concentrations of NO_2 declined 29%. Decreasing NO_2 emissions from transportation accounted for much of the past reduction. However, because of anticipated increases in the number of vehicles on the road, it is expected that transportation will be largely responsible for a 6% increase in NO_X (and subsequent increase in NO_2) between 1985 and 2005.

In 1985, 40% of volatile organic compounds (VOC) were from transportation sources; cars alone emitted 22%. It is currently estimated that evaporative emissions from carburettors, gas tanks and losses during refuelling account for 40% of motor vehicle VOC emissions. The remaining 60% is from unburned gasoline released in exhaust, thus closely tied to poorly tuned engines.

Smog still a problem

During summer months, over one-half of all Canadians are exposed to ozone concentrations (smog) in excess of national air quality objectives. Most ground-level ozone resulting from human activity is generated within 100 km of densely populated areas and can extend as far as 200 km. The highest ozone concentrations usually occur during mid-afternoons within 50 km downwind of source areas.

The average urban concentration of ozone did not change between 1974 and 1987. However, the average number of hours of high ozone levels appears to have increased between the end of 1985 and 1989. Between 1983 and 1989, Saskatoon and Victoria were the only major Canadian urban areas (population of 50,000 or greater), where routine monitoring takes place, that did not record ozone levels in excess of maximum acceptable concentrations. Ozone levels in the regions of the British Columbia Lower Mainland, the Windsor-Quebec City corridor, and those of Saint John, New Brunswick and western Nova Scotia, most frequently exceeded environmental quality requirements. Maximum acceptable limits were exceeded



Pollution monitored

In an effort to better monitor and regulate air pollution and pollution control programs in Canada, the federal and provincial governments jointly established the National Air Pollution Surveillance (NAPS) network. As of 1989, the network included 380 monitors at 132 stations and covered 52 Canadian urban areas.

Since the 1970s, the NAPS network has been providing information on common air pollutants in Canada. Some of the pollutants monitored include particulate matter, sulphur dioxide, carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_X), hydrocarbons in general and volatile organic compounds (VOC) in particular, and ground-level ozone (formed from the interaction of NO_X and VOC in sunlight).

Based on measurements taken by the NAPS network, a combined total of more than 22.2 million tonnes of the above pollutants were estimated to have been emitted into the air in 1985. At least 30% of the total tonnes emitted were estimated to have originated from gasoline powered cars and trucks. Further, as measured by many NAPS monitors, daily peak levels of some emissions coincide with rush-hour traffic flows.

However, because of variability in the state of vehicle emission control systems, engine efficiency and differences in personal driving habits, motor vehicle emissions could actually be much higher than are currently estimated. For instance, new cars built between 1975 and 1987 emitted 4.9 times the hydrocarbons, 7.4 times the CO and 3.1 times the NO_X emitted by new cars built since 1988. Passenger cars built before the introduction of emission controls produced more than 21 times the hydrocarbons, 25 times the CO, and 3.6 times the NO_X emitted by 1988 and newer models. Older vehicles in poor mechanical condition, with emission control devices rendered inoperative by owner ignorance or intent, could result in emissions as much as 50 times higher than those of newer vehicles.

Although individual vehicle emissions have been decreasing since the introduction of emissions regulation in 1971, it is expected that current emission levels are, at best, temporarily stable at or near 1985 levels. Anticipated increases in the number of motor vehicles are expected to contribute toward emission increases unless stricter emission controls are adopted.

within the Windsor-Quebec City corridor (home to most Canadians) more often than in any other Canadian region. In 1988, one hour concentrations exceeding acceptable limits were recorded 189 times in Windsor, 157 in a Toronto suburb (North York), 149 in London, and 122 in Oakville.

During high concentrations, those most at risk include people with asthma or lung disease, children, the elderly, and individuals who work or exercise heavily outdoors. While other emission products also harm vegetation, ground-level ozone in particular is known to adversely affect crops, trees, vegetables, and ornamental plants. When average ozone concentrations ranged from 40 to 50 parts per billion (levels below the maximum acceptable limits), annual yield losses to selected Ontario crops were recently estimated to range from 1% to 12%. Depending on the frequency of high ozone episodes, the combined commercial losses can range from $17-$70 million per year. Crops in the Lower Fraser Valley area of British Columbia are believed to suffer similar damage.

Reducing emissions

Acting on recommendations made by participants in Canada's Green Plan Consultations, the Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment (CCME) have developed a 10-year national plan to manage emissions of nitrogen oxides and volatile organic compounds. Through this plan, federal and provincial governments hope to co-operatively resolve problems of ground-level ozone by the year 2005.

One of the key elements of the plan is to reduce the regional levels of motor vehicle NO_x and VOC emissions. There are a variety of strategies suggested to achieve this goal. They include public education campaigns to encourage energy conserving driving habits and alternative modes of transportation, more effective speed limit enforcement, ozone management plans for urban centres of 100,000 or more people, the adoption of new and stiffer emission standards by 1996, and mandatory motor vehicle inspection and maintenance programs in the Lower Fraser Valley and Windsor-Quebec City corridor regions by 1993. These and other strategies are forecasted to reduce the total on-road vehicle NO_x emissions by 32% and VOC emissions by 35% by the year 2005.

The cost of the first phase of the plan is estimated at more than $850 million (1989 dollars), half of which is related to mobile sources (primarily cars and light-duty trucks). It is expected that vehicle owners and operators will ultimately pay the costs associated with reducing vehicle and fuel emissions. However, in the absence of good alternative modes of transportation, the plan may limit people with low incomes from access to employment and other opportunities.

To date, Ontario, Quebec and Newfoundland are the only provinces to prohibit tampering with emission controls. However, in the spring of 1992, British Columbia plans to launch a comprehensive and compulsory vehicle emissions testing program.

The Aircare program

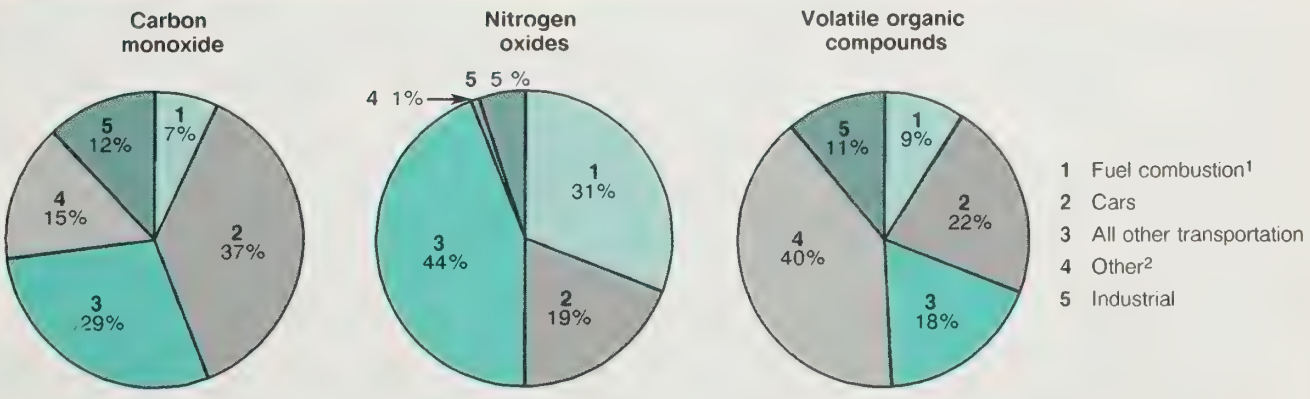
British Columbia is launching Canada's first mandatory motor vehicle emissions testing program in the Spring of 1992. At an estimated cost of $40 million, the program (known as Aircare) will require that most cars, motorhomes, and light-duty trucks registered in the British Columbia Lower Mainland pass annual emission inspection prior to renewal of the vehicle's licence. Heavy duty vehicles will come under a commercial vehicle inspection program. The program may be expanded to other areas of the province in the future.

The Aircare program was developed in response to studies by the Greater Vancouver Regional District that established that motor vehicle emissions were the main cause of air pollution in the Lower Mainland of British Columbia. Motor vehicles were responsible for 53% of the hydrocarbons, 64% of the nitrogen oxides and 90% of the carbon monoxide in the Lower Mainland. Because of those emissions, the region (home to more than 50% of British Columbia's population) has one of the highest levels of ground-level ozone in the country.

Testing by B.C. Environment and Environment Canada found that 54% to 70% of vehicles currently on the road have emissions-related defects. It is anticipated that most vehicles tested will need repairs and that 25% to 30% of vehicles will actually fail emission testing. The most commonly required repair to reduce emissions to acceptable limits is a tune-up.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Air pollutants, by source, 1985



1 Refineries, commercial and residential, power plants, and other.
2 Incineration, fuel marketing, structural fires and slash burning, solvent use, and other.
Source: Kosteltz, Anthony M., *Canadian Emissions Inventory of Common Air Contaminants (1985)*, Environment Canada.

The City of Calgary Transportation Department has also initiated a program that is the first of its kind in Canada. Effective May 31, 1991, Calgary launched its Air Improvement Resolution (AIR) program to create awareness of air pollution originating from motor vehicle emissions and alternative modes of transportation. Under the AIR program (modelled after two successful programs in the United States), commuters are encouraged to find alternatives to driving alone in their car two days per month.

Definitions

Carbon monoxide (CO) is a colourless toxic gas that causes deaths associated with exhaust entering the passenger compartment of a vehicle. CO is also believed to convert to carbon dioxide (CO_2), a major "greenhouse gas," within a few months of emission into the atmosphere. In 1987, it was estimated that cars produced more than 10% of national CO_2, thereby contributing toward global warming.

Nitrogen oxides (NO_x) are a group of gases composed of only nitrogen and oxygen. As a group, oxides of nitrogen may remain airborne for several days, travel thousands of miles, and form acid rain, ground-level ozone, and other environmentally or human health damaging products.

Volatile organic compounds (VOC) are a sub-group of hydrocarbons. Although many VOCs are also produced naturally, those generated by human activity have greater potential to contribute to ground-level ozone formation and other serious human health and environmental problems.

Ground-level ozone (smog) is formed in a complex series of reactions between NO_x and VOC, using energy provided by solar ultraviolet radiation. Although it is chemically the same as the stratospheric ozone (commonly known as the ozone layer — the layer that filters out ultraviolet light before it reaches earth), the effects of ground-level ozone on plant, animal, and human health are negative. It is the major component of urban smog.

Changing fuel an alternative

Environment Canada and other agencies have been studying the emissions levels associated with burning methanol, ethanol, propane, and natural gas. To date, natural gas appears to offer the greatest potential as a gasoline substitute. However, as with gasoline-fuelled vehicles, potential emission reductions are maximized only if the latest technologies are employed and vehicles are kept well tuned. Further, the cost of adapting the gasoline distribution system to accommodate new fuels is nearly prohibitive — a cost that would almost certainly be passed on to the consumer.

Changes to gasoline have also reduced emissions associated with its use. For example, its ozone forming potential has been reduced through changing its volatility (evaporative properties). Additional reductions of volatility are planned for the future. As well, the Canadian ban on the sale of leaded gasoline has largely eliminated particulate lead from the air. Following regulations limiting the lead content of gasoline and the increased use of vehicles designed for unleaded fuel, ambient lead levels dropped 86% between 1973 and 1987. With leaded gasoline now unavailable to the general public, it is likely that lead emission levels have now decreased to nearly zero.

Changing driving and vehicle maintenance habits may result in notable emission reductions, regardless of the type of fuel used. Driving at 90 km/hr rather than 100 km/hr may reduce fuel consumption by as much as 10% and lower emissions. Stricter enforcement of existing speed limits may provide the incentive to drive more slowly. Keeping vehicle engines well tuned may also cut fuel consumption by as much as 10%.

Conclusion

The benefits of increased use of mass transit and other alternatives to personal vehicles cannot be accurately forecasted. However, in a general sense, decreasing the use of personal vehicles, driving them more slowly and maintaining them so that they meet model-year emission standards, will certainly contribute toward improved air quality. A decrease in the number of vehicles on the road should also reduce traffic congestion, parking problems, and the level of national energy consumption.

While alternatives to personal motor vehicle transportation are not yet used by the majority of Canadians, there are indications that public transit is used more often now than a decade ago. Current plans to stiffen vehicle emission standards and implement compulsory emission testing, combined with the rising costs of vehicle ownership and operation, and heightened public concern about environmental issues, may help to reduce dependence on personal vehicles.

References

The emissions information contained within this article has been drawn from a number of Environment Canada sources. Additional information concerning the sources, quantities and effects of the emissions discussed in this report may be obtained from Environment Canada or by referring to the following government publications:

1) Hilborn, J. and M. Still, *Canadian Perspectives on Air Pollution*, Environment Canada.

2) Jaques, A.P., *National Inventory of Sources and Emissions of Carbon Dioxide (1987)*, Environment Canada.

3) Kosteltz, Anthony M., *Canadian Emissions Inventory of Common Air Contaminants (1985)*, Environment Canada.

4) *Management Plan for Nitrogen Oxides (NO_x) and Volatile Organic Compounds (VOC): Phase I, November, 1990*, Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment.

5) *National Urban Air Quality Trends 1978-1987*, Environment Canada.

Alan Goodall *is an analyst with* Canadian Social Trends.

NURSING IN CANADA

by Marie Sedivy-Glasgow



Registered nurses comprise the single largest group of health care providers in Canada, accounting for almost one-half of the country's health care workers. Employment in nursing has increased, although much of this is due to part-time work. The majority of nurses still work in hospitals. However, an increasing proportion are employed in nursing homes and community health care, a trend that is likely to continue.

Nursing supply increasing

The number of registered nurses (RNs) in Canada continues to increase. In 1989, RNs totalled about 252,000, up from 193,000 in 1977 and 115,000 in 1966. The vast majority of nurses are women, with men accounting for about 3% in 1989. This was up slightly from about 1% in 1966.

While not all nurses are employed in the profession, the number who are increased to about 221,000 in 1989 from 89,000 in 1966.[1] The supply of nurses has increased at a rate faster than overall population growth, resulting in declining population to nurse ratios. By 1989, there were 120 people for every RN employed in nursing, down from 166 in 1977 and 254 in 1966.

Considerable regional disparities exist in the supply of nurses. For example, in 1989, there were 103 Nova Scotia residents for every RN working in that profession, 117 in Ontario and 127 in British Columbia.

Since the late 1970s, the number of people per nurse in Quebec has declined faster than in any other province. Whereas the population to nurse ratio (122:1) in Quebec was close to the national average in 1989, it was most double that in 1977 (213:1) and the highest of any province. At the same time, while Saskatchewan's population to nurse ratio (122:1) roughly equalled the national average in 1989, the ratio (142:1) had been tied with New Brunswick's in 1977, as the country's lowest.

Higher education

In 1989, the majority (70%) of nurses had basic diploma training, granted after completing the prescribed course of study in either a hospital school or community college. Sixteen percent had upgraded their qualification with postbasic diploma courses, 13% had a Bachelor's degree and 1% had a Master's degree.

Provincially, New Brunswick and Alberta had the highest proportions of university-educated nurses (20% and 19%, respectively) in 1989. Prince Edward Island had the lowest proportion of nurses with a university degree (9%). This is likely due, in part, to the absence of a university nursing program in that province.

RNs are increasingly likely to have a university degree rather than a diploma. Whereas 14% of RNs were university graduates in 1989, this had been the case for only 5% in 1966. Thus, the ratio of diploma nurses to those with a university education dropped sharply. In 1989, for every six nurses with a diploma (basic or postbasic), there was one with a university degree. In 1966, the ratio had been 18:1.

Consistent with this trend, the number of diploma programs in Canada dropped to 110 in 1988 from 173 in 1966. While university nursing programs remained relatively stable at just over 20, admissions to a Bachelor's program rose to 2,023 in 1988 from 1,470 in 1977 and only 560 in 1966.

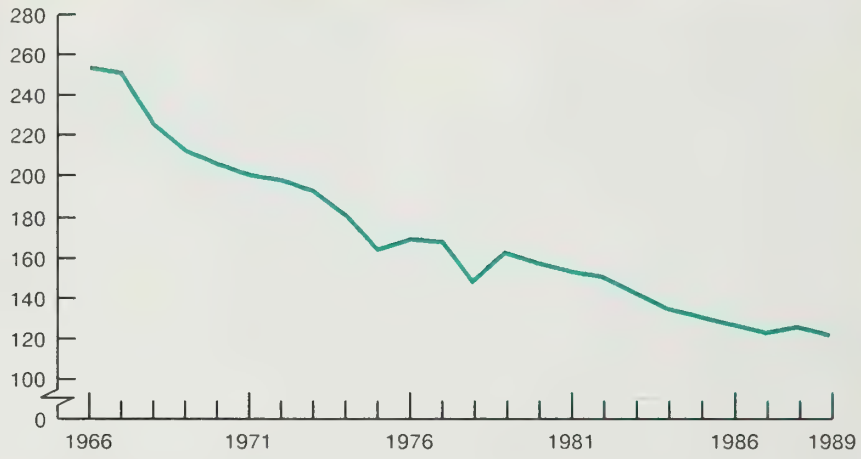
Although still few in number, postgraduate programs in nursing have increased. In 1988, 11 Master's programs were offered at Canadian universities, up from 5 in 1966. Doctoral programs are offered jointly by McGill University and the Université de Montréal, by the University of Alberta, and by the University of British Columbia.

Part-time work increasing

An increasing proportion of nurses are employed in nursing. By 1989, 92% of RNs were working as nurses, up from 74% in 1977 and 78% in 1966. While some provincial variation did exist, the proportion of RNs working as nurses was high in

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

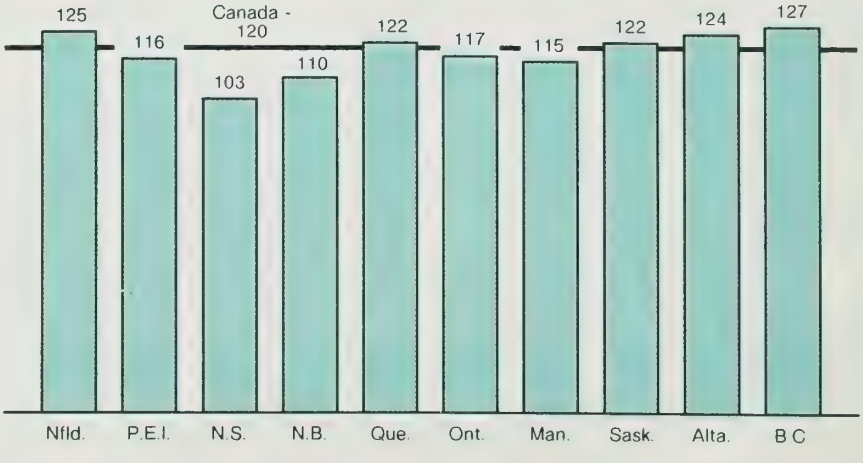
People per nurse employed in nursing, 1966-1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *Health Personnel in Canada.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

People per nurse employed in nursing, by province, 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *Health Personnel in Canada.*

all provinces, ranging from 98% in Quebec[2] and 97% in Manitoba and Saskatchewan, to 87% in Ontario.

Younger nurses were more likely than older ones to be employed in their own field. For example, 96% of RNs under age 25 worked as nurses, compared with 81% of those aged 55 and over.

Almost all the increase in the proportion of nurses working in the profession was due to part-time employment. By 1989, 35% of all RNs were working part-time, up from 20% in 1966. Over the same period, the proportion employed full-time in the profession remained relatively stable around 55%. The remainder were not employed in nursing.

Part-time nursing is more common in some areas of the country than in others. For example, Newfoundland and New Brunswick had the lowest proportions of nurses working part-time, at 17% and 26%, respectively. In contrast, part-time representation was highest in Prince Edward Island, where more nurses worked part-time (50%) than full-time (46%).

Seeking nursing employment

Among nurses not working in their own profession, less than one-third (32%) continued to seek nursing jobs in 1989. Most of these nurses were in Ontario.

Regional differences are extreme. Of RNs not employed as nurses, 82% of those in Manitoba and 74% in Nova Scotia looked for jobs in their profession in 1989. In contrast, the proportions were 25% in Ontario, 20% in Newfoundland and 6% in New Brunswick.

Younger RNs not employed in nursing were more likely than their older counterparts to seek employment in their own field. In 1989, about two-thirds (63%) of those under age 25 were trying to find nursing jobs, compared with only 20% of those aged 55 and over.

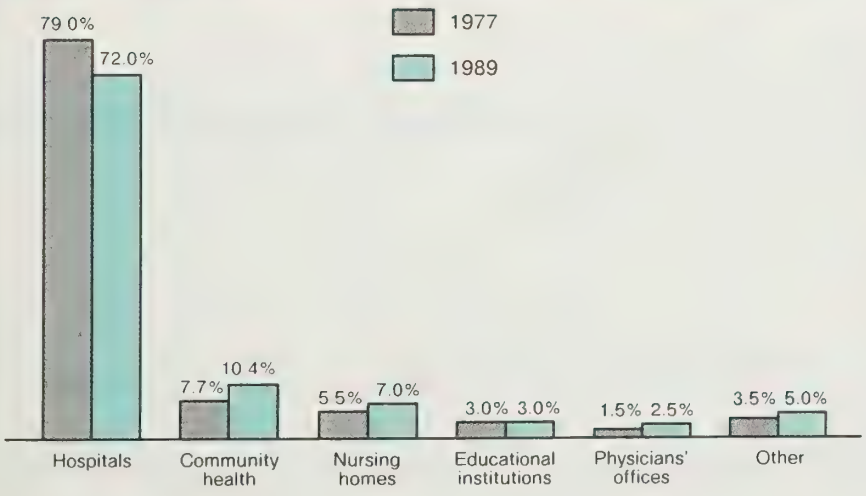
Employer

The distribution of nurses by employer has changed since the late 1970s, although most RNs employed in nursing are still working in hospitals. In 1989, 72% were employed in hospitals, down from 79% in 1977. The shift over this period was towards an increased proportion of RNs working in nursing homes (to 7% from 3%) and in community health (to 10% from 8%). These changes have accompanied the rise in the number and proportion of the elderly population, and increased emphasis on community health services.

While all provincial health care systems are mainly institutionalized, considerable differences do exist in the percentages of RNs working in community health care. The proportion of community health care nurses was lowest in the Atlantic provinces in 1989: Nova Scotia, 5%; New Brunswick, 6%; Prince Edward Island, 7%; and Newfoundland, 8%. The western provinces had generally higher proportions: 9% of nurses were working in community health care in Manitoba, Alberta and British Columbia, and 8% in Saskatchewan. Proportions were highest in Ontario (13%) and Quebec (10%).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Registered nurses employed in nursing, by employer, 1977 and 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *Health Personnel in Canada.*

Most staff nurses

Most RNs work as general duty staff nurses, with 72% in these positions in 1989. The remainder were employed as head nurses (7%), supervisors (5%), instructors (3%), directors (2%) and clinical specialists (1%). The distribution has remained almost identical since 1977, with the exception of the emergence of the category of clinical specialists.

As in other occupations, educational attainment is directly linked to the type of job within nursing. For example, nurses with less formal education were more likely than others to be involved in direct patient care as staff nurses. More than three-quarters (79%) of nurses with a basic diploma were staff nurses in 1989, compared with 66% of those with a postbasic diploma, 54% with a Bachelor's degree, and 16% with a Master's degree.

On the other hand, nurses with a Master's degree were more likely than others to be instructors or directors. In 1989, 28% of Master's degree holders were instructors, compared with 11% of those with a Bachelor's degree. This was the case for only 2% of nurses with a postbasic diploma and 1% with a basic diploma. The percentage of nurses who were directors ranged from 15% for those with a Master's degree to 5% or less for those with other levels of education.

Salaries

Provincially, higher levels of education do not necessarily translate into higher salaries. For example, New Brunswick had the largest proportion of university-educated nurses, but one of the lowest salary ranges.

Rather, salaries appear to be largely related to the level of provincial health care funding. For example, 1987 per capita health care expenditures were highest in Ontario, Alberta and British Columbia ($1,985, $1,906 and $1,869, respectively). Salary ranges during 1990 were $32,000-$38,000 for Ontario, $32,000-$37,000 for Alberta and $33,000-$39,000 for British Columbia. The Atlantic provinces, on the other hand, had lower expenditures, and the salary range in all provinces during 1990 was $27,000-$33,000.

[1] Unless otherwise noted, all subsequent numbers and percentages are based on the number of nurses employed in nursing.

[2] A large number of nurses in Quebec did not state their employment status. Therefore, this proportion should be used with caution.

Marie Sedivy-Glasgow *is a postgraduate student in sociology at the University of Alberta.*

ANNUAL LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, 1946-1991

	Population aged 15 and over (000s)	Labour force (000s)			Participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Employment/ population ratio (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966[1]	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	61.1	7.1	56.7
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	61.6	8.1	56.6
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	62.7	8.3	57.5
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	63.4	7.4	58.7
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	64.1	7.5	59.3
1981	18,368	11,899	11,001	898	64.8	7.5	59.9
1982	18,608	11,926	10,618	1,308	64.1	11.0	57.1
1983	18,805	12,109	10,675	1,434	64.4	11.8	56.8
1984	18,996	12,316	10,932	1,384	64.8	11.2	57.5
1985	19,190	12,532	11,221	1,311	65.3	10.5	58.5
1986	19,397	12,746	11,531	1,215	65.7	9.5	59.4
1987	19,642	13,011	11,861	1,150	66.2	8.8	60.4
1988	19,890	13,275	12,244	1,031	66.7	7.8	61.6
1989	20,141	13,503	12,486	1,018	67.0	7.5	62.0
1990	20,430	13,681	12,572	1,109	67.0	8.1	61.5
1991	20,746	13,757	12,340	1,417	66.3	10.3	59.5

[1] Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,240.3	26,602.6	26,991.6[p]
Annual growth (%)	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5[p]
Immigration[1]	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,148	217,795[p]
Emigration[1]	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	37,915	38,424[p]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	*	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	*	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	1,039	990	915	872	789	776	841	1,046
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572	12,340
- goods sector (000s)	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626	3,423
- services sector (000s)	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946	8,917
Total unemployment (000s)	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109	1,417
Unemployment rate (%)	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.3
Part-time employment (%)	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4	16.4
Women's participation rate (%)	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4	58.2
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	34.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	46,069	*
% of families with low income (1986 Base)	15.6	14.3	13.6	13.1	12.2	11.1	12.1	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	67.6	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,083.9	5,149.3[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	817.1	831.9	849.4	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,672	*
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.6	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	*	*
- women	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	*	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	*	*
- women	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	*	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.7	5.7	5.9	5.8	5.8	5.9	6.0	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	714	749	808	856	898	948	1,013	*
- property	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,870	*
- homicide	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.0	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1990 $000,000)	150,536.9	155,474.6	157,202.1	160,380.0	164,771.1	169,678.3	174,568.0	*
- as a % of total expenditures	55.6	55.8	56.3	55.8	56.5	56.2	57.1	*
- as a % of GDP	26.2	26.1	26.0	25.4	24.8	24.9	26.0	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	*
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+4.7	+2.5	+0.5	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	4.4	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6
Urban housing starts	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620	*

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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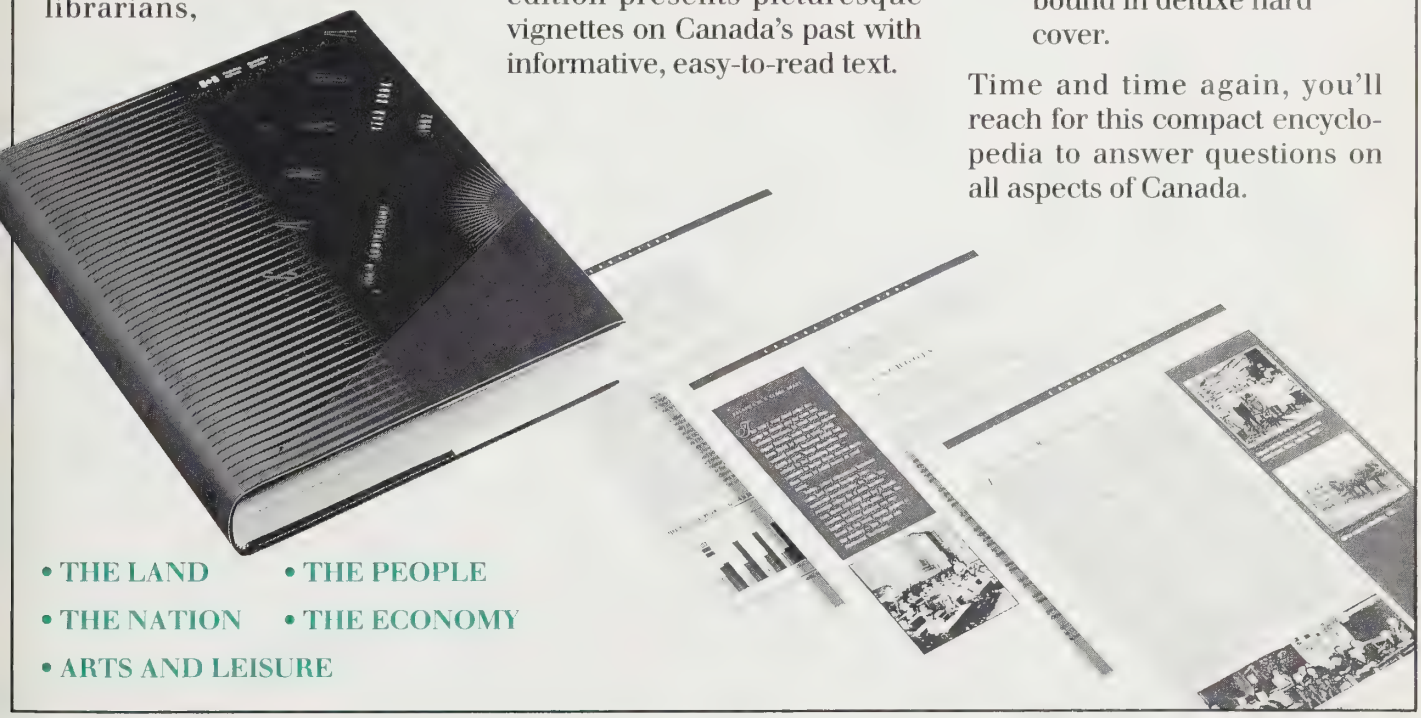
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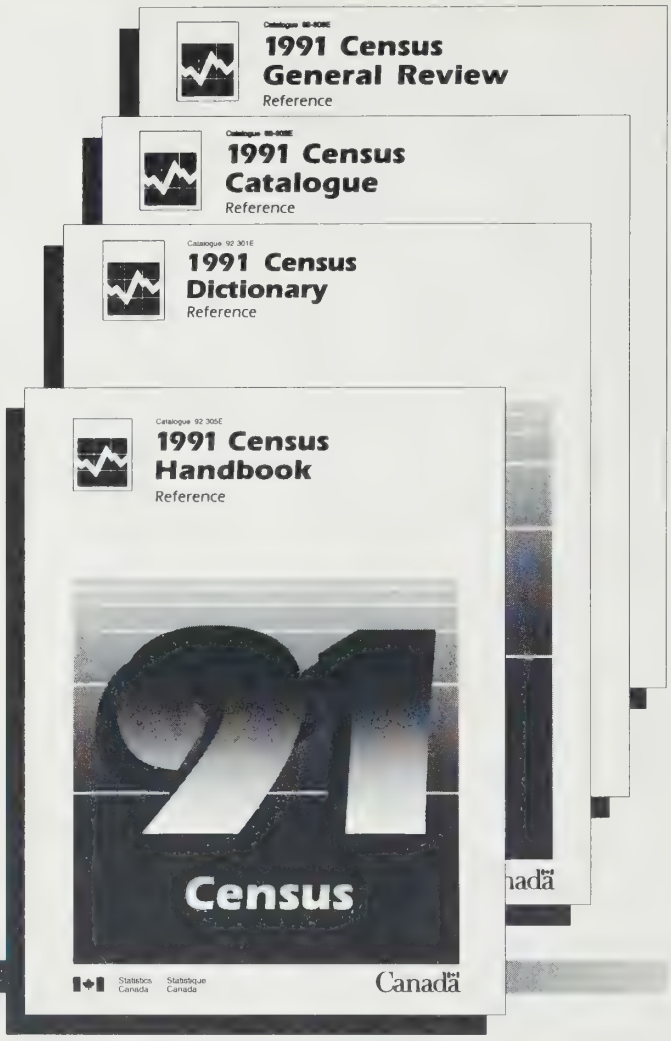
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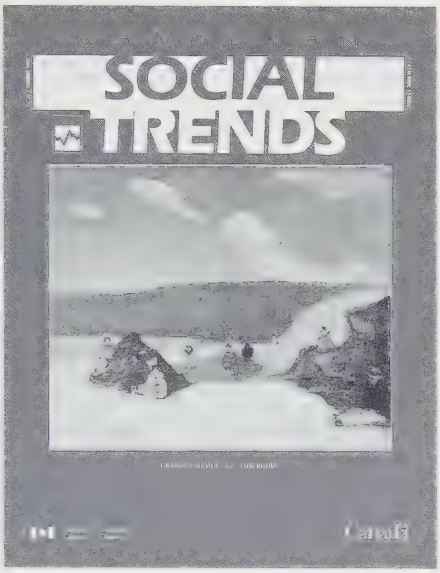
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About the Artist:

James Wilson Morrice (1865-1924) completed his legal studies in Toronto before departing for Europe to pursue his foremost interest in painting. His works were greatly influenced by artists such as Matisse, Monet and Gauguin. Much of his time was spent in Paris and Africa, although during his earlier years in Europe, he returned regularly to Canada for a few months at a time to reunite with family and friends. His works have been acquired by various collectors, including the National Gallery of Canada.

Note:

The Canadian Social Trends Project Team wishes to extend a special thanks to **Cheryl Sarazin** for her exceptional work as Production Co-ordinator over the past five years. Her dedication to Canadian Social Trends contributed to its professional appearance and timely release.



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CANADA'S COURT SYSTEM

by Roger Roberge, Jr.



The court system in Canada is an integral component of the justice system, being the middle link in the chain between the police and corrections. Generally speaking, the courts can either act in a role to determine the guilt or innocence of a person and hand down appropriate sanctions or punishments if the person is found guilty, or can resolve disputes between private parties.

Canadians' perceptions of the justice system vary considerably. For example, according to a Department of Justice study, conducted in 1986 and 1987, about two-thirds of respondents felt that "everyone is equal before the law" and that "the justice system treats people with respect." In contrast, according to Statistics Canada's General Social Survey, many Canadians seem to be dissatisfied with the court system. In 1988, only 25% of respondents thought the criminal courts did a good job in determining guilt and only 14% thought the criminal courts provided justice quickly. (See "Perceptions of the Justice System", **Canadian Social Trends**, Winter 1990.)

During the 1980s, the Canadian court system had to deal with demographic changes, rising rates of crime, increased caseloads, and increasingly complex legal issues. Over the same period, the number of judges and crown attorneys continued to rise, as did court expenditures. The court system is also undergoing reforms designed to make elements of the judicial process more efficient and less complicated for the primary user — the general public.

Court system structure

The court system is often perceived by Canadians as being a large, complicated system comprised of different types of courts with differing responsibilities. Courts draw their powers from the

Constitution Act, the Criminal Code, and other specific provincial and federal legislation. With the exception of the administration of federal courts, administration is the responsibility of the provinces. Each province has exclusive powers over the creation, maintenance and organization of provincial courts. The federal government is responsible for drafting and amending the Criminal Code and other federal acts, as well as for the creation and administration of the Supreme Court of Canada, the Federal Court — Appeal and Trial Divisions, the Tax Court, and the Court Martial Appeal Court.

The Canadian court system is hierarchical in structure. In general, higher courts exercise authority over lower courts with respect to the right to review decisions and decide appeals from decisions. In general, matters of a more serious nature are heard in higher courts. All courts (except the Supreme Court of Canada) are bound by decisions of law made in higher courts.

Supreme Court of Canada: The Supreme Court of Canada is the highest court in Canada and as such, has jurisdiction over all legal matters, with its judgements being final and conclusive. It also has a "reference" jurisdiction, enabling it to hear matters related to the **Constitution Act** and to federal and provincial powers and legislation. Presently this court is comprised of nine judges, three of whom are required by law to be appointed from Quebec, in order to allow the court to hear appeals of "civil code" decisions made only in Quebec. Of the remaining judges, three are appointed from Ontario, one from the Atlantic provinces, one from the Prairie provinces, and one from British Columbia.

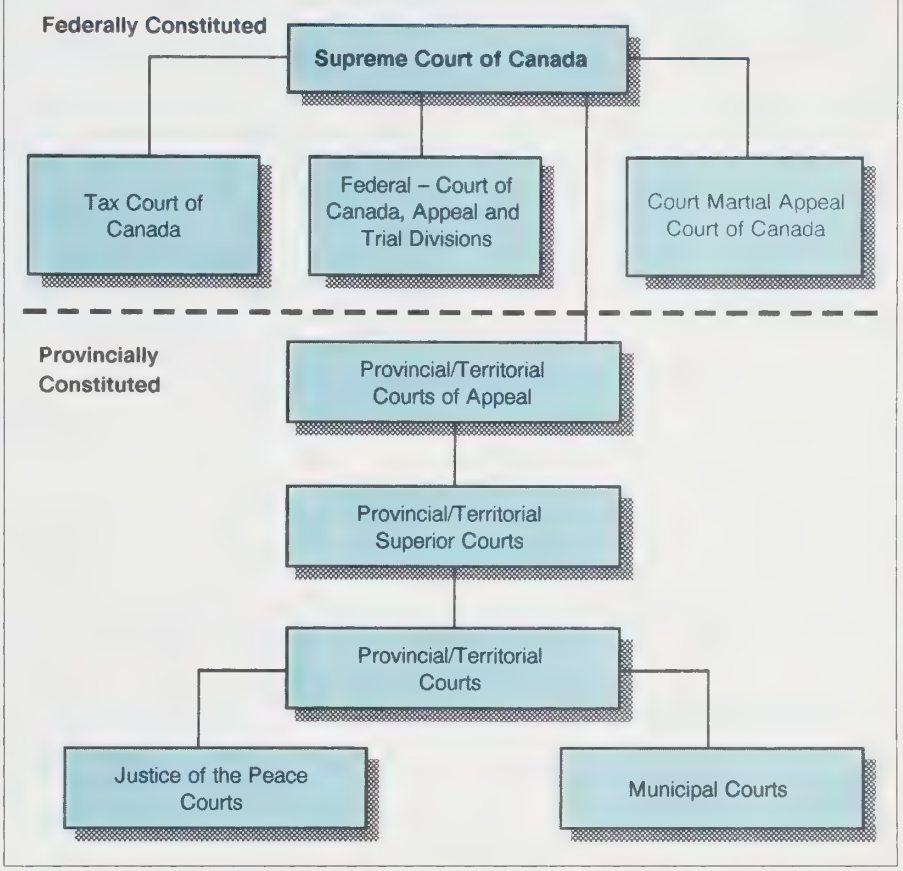
Federally-constituted courts: Before an appeal can reach the Supreme Court level, a case must first pass through either federally- or provincially-constituted courts. Federally-constituted courts are comprised of: the Federal Court — Appeal and Trial Court Divisions, the Tax Court of Canada and the Court Martial Appeal Court of Canada. The Federal Appeal and Trial Court Divisions hear matters concerning patents, copyrights, and federal administrative law cases. The Tax Court hears matters concerning federal taxation laws and the Court Martial Appeal Court deals with matters relating to the National Defence Act. In 1990, there were a total of 27 judges sitting on the Appeals and Trial Courts, and 15 judges on the Tax Court.

Provincially-constituted courts: There are two main types of provincially-constituted courts: Provincial/Territorial Courts, and Courts of Appeal and Superior Courts. The Provincial/Territorial Court is generally the lowest level in the court system and is the entry point for most charges to be heard. Many provinces also have created Provincial/Territorial Justice of the Peace Courts, and in Quebec, Municipal Courts. Such courts were created primarily to handle the large volume of minor offences such as traffic violations. They have varying powers and responsibilities, depending on the jurisdiction, and are presided over by a provincially-appointed justice of the peace (who need not be a lawyer) or a municipal court judge.

Provincial/Territorial Court judges process the majority of cases relating to the Criminal Code, the Young Offenders Act, highway traffic violations and other federal and provincial statutes. Most charges heard by these judges are in the form of a guilty plea where no trial is required and sentencing is done immediately after the entering of the plea. Provincial/Territorial judges also hold preliminary inquiries for more serious offences where an accused will be tried in a higher court. These judges may also hear family law and small claims cases. Judges are appointed and paid for by provincial governments, and in 1990 numbered about 950.

If a charge is serious enough or is appealed, it is processed in a higher court: Provincial/Territorial Courts of Appeal, the highest of the provincially-constituted courts, or Superior Courts. The Courts of Appeal hear any public (criminal) or private (civil) law matter appeal on a decision of any judge in the province or territory, and are comprised of a panel of at least three judges. Superior Courts generally hear more serious criminal matters, as well as appeals from Provincial/Territorial Courts, and matters involving the administration of estates and civil disputes. Judges in Courts of Appeal and Superior Courts are appointed and paid for by the federal government. In 1990, there were approximately 800 such judges (includes just over 110 supernumerary judges).

Structure of the court system



Mixed growth in the number of judges

Judges make up about 15% of all people employed in the system. In 1990, there were approximately 1,800 federal and

provincial judges[1] in Canada (excluding Justices of the Peace and Municipal Court judges). This number rose over the last two decades. However, increases were not consistent over the 20 years, being slower between 1981 and 1990 (16%) than during the previous 10 years (38%). Despite slower growth in the 1980s, the number of people per judge gradually decreased over the 1980s for the country as a whole, to 14,700 people per judge in 1990, from 15,600 in 1981. Yet over the same 20-year period, there were considerable differences in provincial offences and population to judge ratios. Criminal Code offences recorded by police more than doubled and all offences (Criminal Code, Federal and Provincial statutes and Municipal By-laws) increased by 93%.

Provincial/Territorial Court judges, numbering approximately 950 in 1990, are estimated to process over 90% of all charges heard within the Canadian court system.[2] Still, their numbers increased by only 38% between 1971 and 1990, far slower than the growth for judges overall (63%). Growth for Provincial/Territorial Court judges from 1981 to 1990 was particularly low at 8%, compared with a 26% increase from 1971 to 1980.

In contrast to relatively slow growth for provincially-appointed Provincial/Territorial judges, the number of federally-appointed judges (Supreme Court, Federal Courts and Provincial/Territorial Courts of Appeal and Superior Courts) increased sharply. Between 1971 and 1990, this group increased 105%. Still, growth in federally-appointed judges was slower between 1981 and 1990 than during the previous 10 years. The number of judges increased 25% between 1981 and 1990, down from 58% between 1971 and 1980.

Use of supernumerary judges increasing

Recently, the use of supernumerary judges, particularly at the Provincial Superior Court level, has increased. A supernumerary judge is a fully empowered judge appointed for a specific period of time for either full-time or part-time duties. Often the judge is beyond retirement age and is appointed until a replacement judge is named. In other instances, a judge is appointed for a short period of time to provide additional services when there is an unusually large volume of cases.

[1] Canadian Law Book Inc., *Canadian Law List, 1991.*

[2] McCormick, Peter and Ian Greene, *Judges and Judging, 1990.*



Dual nature of the law system

Public and private law: There are two types of law matters in Canada: public and private. "Public law" includes criminal, administrative, constitutional and taxation law. Criminal law, a subcategory of "public law", governs disputes between the state and the individual, such as violations of the Criminal Code. In the case of a Criminal Code violation, the government acts in the capacity of "prosecutor", representing the interests of society.

In Canada, the criminal system is an adversarial one, whereby two opposing parties (prosecution and defence) present their sides of a case to an impartial third party (judge). It is assumed that this combative approach is better at getting to the truth than a cooperative approach. The adversarial process is structured such that the burden of proof rests with the prosecution: innocent until proven guilty. A judge or jury evaluates both sides of the case and makes a decision based on facts presented during the trial.

"Private law" (or "civil law") governs disputes between individuals and other private parties, and involves such matters as contract disputes, property, wills and family law. A divorce hearing is an example of a family law matter. In most private actions, the object is to compensate the party who suffered loss. In criminal matters, there is also a punitive factor as well as possible compensation for the victim.

Common law and civil code law systems: All criminal and private law matters in Canada are tried under the "common law system", except for private law in Quebec, which falls under the "civil code law system". Common law evolved from the English court system, whereby even the peasants (or "commoners") could obtain justice from the king. Common law is best understood as a system of guidelines based on the concept of precedent. Precedent refers to decisions handed down on similar cases by other courts.

The civil code law system has its roots in the legal codes prepared for the Emperor Napoleon, and was enacted in Quebec in 1866. The civil code law system consists of relatively simple but comprehensive statements of rules which embody general principles of law. In theory, when a court is considering a case, it does not consult prior decisions (precedents), but looks for a specific rule as found in an article of the civil code. In addition, the civil code gives a judge a more active role in court proceedings than under common law. A judge can conduct an independent investigation and ask questions on issues not presented as evidence during the trial.

The civil code system is used only in Quebec, and only in its private law. In practice, the Quebec courts do resort to prior decisions to help them determine the meaning of civil code rules. Thus, the decisions of cases are similar under both common and civil code law, although the method by which the decision is reached is different.

Increasing numbers of supernumerary judges are being used as the volume of court cases increases. Between 1981 and 1990, the number of these judges increased 58%, far faster than any other segment of the judiciary. In 1990, there were over 110 supernumerary Provincial/Territorial Courts of Appeal or Superior Court judges, representing 6.2% of all judges in Canada. It is probable that supernumerary judges do not handle this proportion of the caseload due to their reduced work schedules.

Since 1985, the number and share of these judges has increased sharply. Most provinces have recorded a similar upward trend in the number and relative proportion of supernumerary judges. However, there were considerable provincial differences in these increases and in 1990, provincial shares in supernumerary judges ranged from about 1% to 17%.

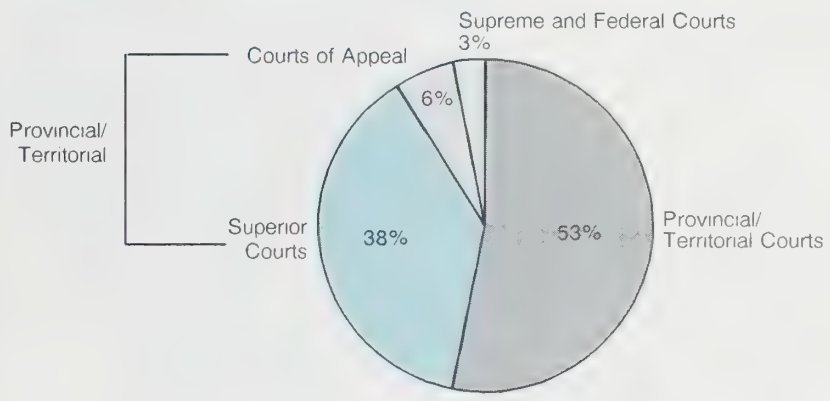
Number of crown attorneys rising

Crown attorneys are responsible for representing the government in criminal and other prosecutions. The federal and provincial governments maintain a permanent staff of crown attorneys. In addition, all provinces employ attorneys from private law firms to represent the crown on a per case basis. No national data have been gathered, however, on the degree to which these ad hoc lawyers are used. Also, many provinces employ "paralegals", usually with law enforcement backgrounds, to represent the crown in minor offences, such as traffic violations.

In 1990, there were over 1,000 full-time, permanent provincial crown attorneys[3] in Canada (excluding paralegals, federal crown attorneys and ad hoc lawyers), up 36% from 778 in 1981. There were approximately 25,000 people per crown attorney in 1990, down from 31,100 in 1981. From 1971 to 1980, the number of crown attorneys had increased by over 100%, from 380 to 769.

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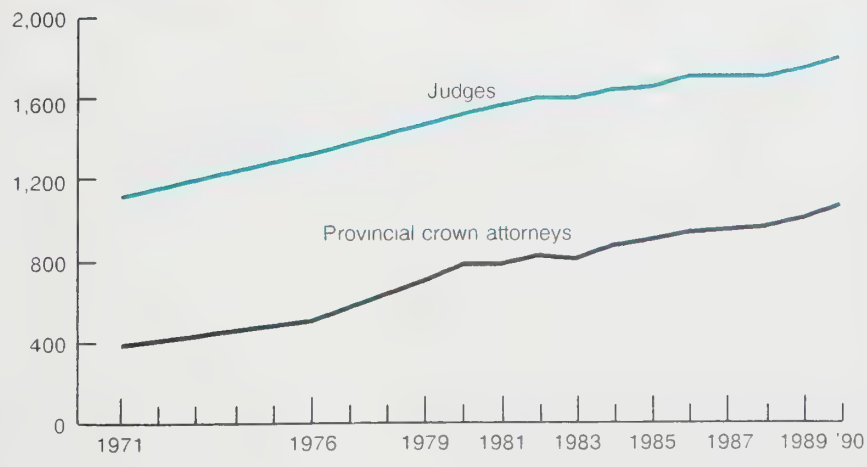
Judges in 1990



Source: Canada Law Book Inc., *Canadian Law List*.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Judges and provincial crown attorneys, 1971-1990



Sources: Canada Law Book Inc., *Canadian Law List*; and Department of Justice Canada.

Cost of justice rising

In 1990-91, Canadians spent an estimated $7.79 billion on justice services for police, courts and correctional services.[4] This amounted to just under 2.5% of the combined total of federal, provincial and municipal government expenditures. Total government justice expenditures in 1981 were $6.55 billion, or 2.7% of total government expenditures. This represented a 19% increase in spending over the 1981-1990 period. By contrast, growth for the previous ten years had been much greater, at 72%.

Of the total justice budget, the court system received a 12.7% share in 1990. This proportion had declined from 13.3% in 1981, and even further from the 1971 level of 15.8%. Court system expenditures amounted to approximately $986.5 million in 1990 for all levels of government or $38 for every person in Canada. In 1981, court expenditures had been $872.5 million and in 1971, $605.5 million.

Ongoing measures being taken in court reform

Rising caseloads and increased demographic pressures in some areas of the country have prompted more fundamental changes in the court system. In addition to increased

[3] Canadian Law Book Inc., *Canadian Law List, 1991*.

[4] Expenditures are for fiscal years April 1st to March 31st and adjusted to 1990 constant dollars using the CPI index (All Items). Data supplied by Statistics Canada, Public Institutions Division, represent consolidated government expenditures. Figures for 1990-91 have been estimated.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Consolidated government expenditures on the court system, 1971-1990



[1] Data for fiscal years 1988-89 to 1990-91 are estimates.
Source: Statistics Canada, Public Institutions Division.

How Canadians interact with the court system

Canadians interact with the court system through both criminal involvement (e.g. paying traffic tickets, being prosecuted as accused persons, testifying as victims or witnesses, reporting for jury duty) and non-criminal involvement (e.g. settling disputes over property or contracts, and divorce and child custody hearings).

The Criminal Code is the most wide-reaching statute governing criminal offences, generally classified as:

- *Crimes of Violence (17% of Criminal Code offences (1990))*
  - *homicide, attempted murder, assault, sexual assault, other sexual offences, abduction, robbery*
- *Property Crimes (36% of Criminal Code offences (1990))*
  - *breaking and entering, motor vehicle theft, theft over and under $1,000, have stolen goods, fraud*
- *Other crimes (27% of Criminal Code offences (1990))*
  - *prostitution, gaming and betting, offensive weapons, arson, counterfeiting currency, kidnapping, public morals, and bail violations, disturbing the peace, escape custody, indecent acts, obstruct peace officer, etc.*
- *Criminal Code traffic violations (20% of Criminal Code offences (1990))*
  - *impaired driving, dangerous operation of a motor vehicle, failure to stop or remain at the scene of the accident, and driving while disqualified*

In addition to Criminal Code offences, the federal government legislates several other federal acts, including:

- *Narcotic Control Act/Food and Drugs Act (77.7% of all offenses under other federal acts)*
  - *drugs (heroin, cocaine, cannabis, other drugs)*
    - *possession, trafficking, importation, cultivation*
    - *controlled drugs (trafficking)*
    - *restricted drugs (possession and trafficking)*
- *Young Offenders Act*
- *Bankruptcy Act*
- *Canada Shipping Act*
- *Customs Act/Excise Act*
- *Immigration Act*

Violations of provincial statutes may also result in court appearances. These statutes include:

- *Liquor and Traffic Acts*
- *Securities Act*

The final category is Municipal By-laws. These vary greatly and can cover anything from leash laws for dogs to smoking in public places.

court expenditures and numbers of judges and crown attorneys, major reform initiatives are being considered and implemented by all levels of government to help address increased caseloads.[5] These initiatives affect all stages of the court process and fall into two broad categories: administrative and structural.

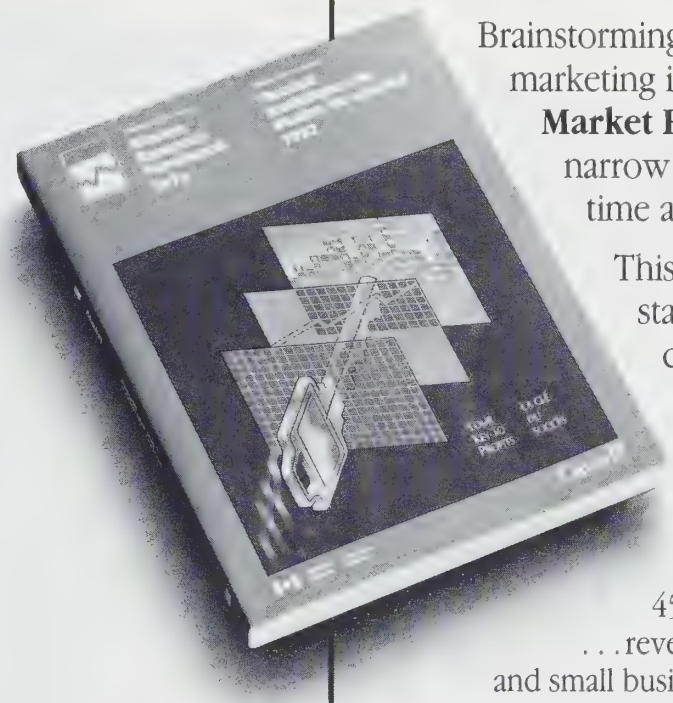
In the area of administrative reforms, many jurisdictions have instituted programs aimed at resolving disputes (mediation, arbitration) before cases reach court, thereby reducing the number of cases in the system. There have also been significant administrative reforms to the management of cases once in the court system, including increased automation and measures designed to use courtroom time more efficiently. Another major administrative reform includes the use of "plain language" in order to simplify legal documents and procedures for the general public.

In the area of structural reform, a number of jurisdictions have made major changes to the organization of their courts over the past few years. Many jurisdictions have merged courts or created "unified" courts to simplify and streamline the delivery of services. Along with court mergers, a process of regionalization is gradually being implemented utilizing regional management committees. These committees would consist of judges, lawyers and members of the public and would assess and determine the priority of case flows within a region, in an attempt to make the system more efficient for all parties.

[5] Canadian Bar Association, *The Report of the Canadian Bar Association Task Force on Court Reform in Canada, 1991.*

Roger Roberge, Jr. *is an analyst with* Canadian Social Trends.

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MEASURING LOW INCOMES IN CANADA

by Aron Spector : Special Contributor

An adaptation of Michael Wolfson's and John Evans', "Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs Methodological Concerns and Possibilities", Analytical Studies Branch Discussion Paper, Statistics Canada.



Commencing in 1989, Statistics Canada reviewed its Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs), a low-income threshold first developed in the late 1960s. Compared to previous assessments, this review was on a larger scale, was more open to the possibility of fundamental change, and involved formal consultation with the user community. Michael Wolfson and John Evans prepared the above mentioned discussion paper as a background document for this consultation process. The discussion paper demonstrated that no one measure of low income is comprehensively superior to others.

The review, however, concluded that a new Statistics Canada measure, based on relative incomes, offered enough advantages over the existing LICOs to warrant planning its adoption. After additional analysis and evaluation of these new Low Income Measures (LIMs), Statistics Canada may phase in the LIMs as the preferred measurement of low income. More information on the LIMs can be found in ***Income Distributions by Size in Canada****, Statistics Canada Catalogue 13-207, 1991 edition. – Ed.*

There are major conceptual and practical difficulties in defining poverty lines and measuring the extent of poverty. One definition of poverty refers to a situation where individuals do not have sufficient resources to cover their economic, social, psychological and spiritual needs. Judging the general level of poverty in society in this way would thus require information on a variety of indicators, including malnutrition, literacy and educational levels, and housing and neighbourhood conditions. However, all statistical measures of low income — often called poverty lines — provide only a rough indication of poverty.

There is no standard method for calculating low-income lines. As a result, a wide variety of such measures are in use by governments, non-government organizations and academics in Canada and abroad. These low-income lines are used to determine a minimum standard of social and economic well-being, to define thresholds for access to subsidies or subsidized services, to measure relative distribution of income, and to assess adequacy of social welfare policy.

Four approaches to low income measurement

There are four broad approaches to the calculation of low-income lines. The first three are based on the income level necessary to meet basic needs. The fourth approach sets the low-income threshold directly in relation to the range of incomes within the population as a whole. All methods of measuring low income are associated with arbitrary and subjective judgements.

Budget standard approach: Low-income lines may be calculated by estimating the minimum income required to purchase a basket of goods and services judged by experts such as academics, social workers, program administrators or politicians as necessary to achieving a basic or minimum standard of living.

In Canada, this definition of low income has been used by municipal social planning councils in their budget guides and by provincial governments (as these judgements are embodied in the basic benefit levels of Social Assistance).

Subjective approach: Another method of estimating the income required to meet basic needs is based on public opinion determined through household surveys. Study respondents are typically asked to identify the minimum income required to meet necessary expenses given their present circumstances. These responses are then used to estimate the income level that equals this perceived minimum. Statistics Canada has published a series of papers outlining experiments in this area.[1]

While this approach may appear to be free of expert opinion or arbitrary judgement, results of attitudinal surveys depend on the precise way questions are formulated. Slight variations in survey questions can have large impacts on the results.

Expenditure patterns approach: A third method of estimating the income level necessary to meet basic needs is to compare the percentage of income spent by people on necessities. With this method, incomes are judged to be low when the proportion of expenditure on necessities is above a predetermined level, leaving a relatively low proportion for spending on other things.

Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs) assume that a family with low income spends an excessive proportion of its income on the basic necessities of food, clothing and shelter. Using family expenditure data, the LICO was first set at the point where families, on average, spend 20% more of their income than did the average family on these necessities. Adjustments were made to account for differences in family size and size of the urban or rural area in which people live. Today, the 20% parameter is still used, although the choice is arbitrary rather than the result of informed judgement.

Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC) uses a similar measure to help determine eligibility for social housing. CMHC's Core Need Income Thresholds define a maximum proportion of income that should be allocated to housing. These measures are set for each housing market in Canada and adjusted for size and composition of the household.

Relative income approach: This approach estimates low incomes in relation to the incomes received by all families. These measures identify people less able than others to access goods or resources within a given society at a particular time. Statistics Canada's new Low Income Measures (LIMs) estimate that a family is living in a low income situation if its income is less than 50% of median family income, adjusted for family size. (Median income is the level where one-half of Canadian families have higher incomes and one-half have lower incomes.) The resulting low-income estimates, however, depend on the choice of parameter, in this case the specific fraction of median income, 50%.

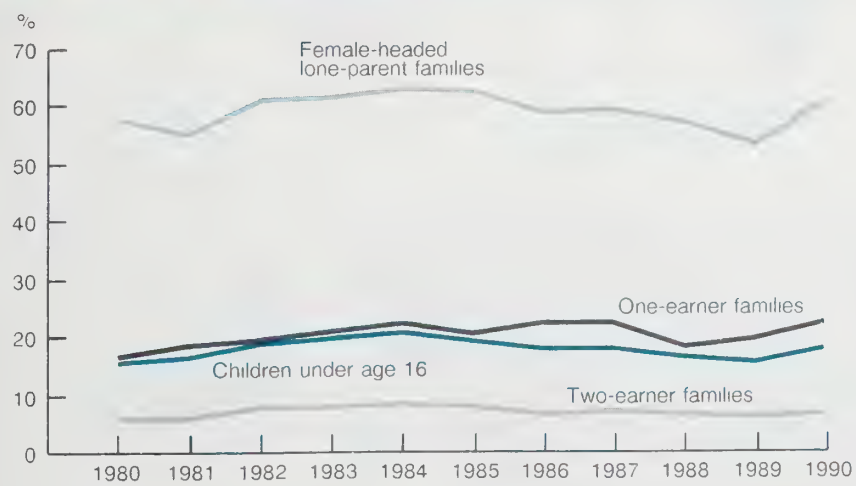
The Canadian Council on Social Development (CCSD) and the Special Senate Committee on Poverty also calculate relative measures of low income.

Low income measurement difficulties

Threshold limitations: By their nature, low-income lines are thresholds or

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People living below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (1986 base), 1980-1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207 and unpublished data.

[1] See, for example, Poulin, S. (1988), "An Application of Analytic Techniques to Canadian Income Satisfaction Data," Staff Report, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.

boundaries. They do not capture poverty depth (how far family incomes fall below a threshold) or poverty duration (how long a family remains below a threshold). However, using information collected to estimate low-income thresholds, poverty depth may be measured. Poverty duration estimates, on the other hand, require studies of the same families over time.

The duration of low-income episodes varies among individuals. At one end of the spectrum are those whose incomes fall below low-income lines for a short time. For example, many students aged 15-24 have low incomes, however, by the time they reach their thirties their incomes have improved. On the other hand, there are people whose incomes remain below low-income lines over a long period. Many lone-parent families headed by women are in this category.

Defining basic needs: The determination of what constitutes basic requirements of a society is based on a judgement made at a particular time and place and is defined according to the conventions of that society. Definitions of basic needs are continually evolving as living standards change over time. Statistics Canada, in its LICOs, considers basic needs to be food, clothing and shelter, three broad categories which may be misleading because they include luxury items such as jewellery, furs and hotel accommodations, while excluding personal care items such as toilet paper and toothpaste.

Comparisons over time: One common way to measure changes in the proportion of the population with low incomes between any two years, for example 1980 and 1990, is to develop a set of low-income measures in relation to living standards in the earlier year (1980) and then update them to the later year (1990) by adjusting for price changes. This procedure allows changes in the incidence of low income to be assessed over time against a fixed standard.

The drawback to this approach is that low incomes in 1990 would be determined according to 1980 living standards. Therefore, any changes in living standards between 1980 and 1990, brought about by technological or real economic change, would not be taken into account. Relative measures of low income, on the other hand, do not share this difficulty because they are not based on family expenditure data and do not have to be updated for price changes. However, such measures do not capture overall changes in the standard of living of the society over time.

Defining income: Monetary income is an imperfect approximation of family consumption because families may consume goods and services not purchased with money. Monetary income does not always account for the return on assets families may have, such as equity from home ownership, variations in family consumption of goods and services or the value of any in-kind transfers families may receive.

Monetary income statistics do not capture the benefits received from the ownership of assets, such as housing and some consumer durables. Such assets provide long periods of service, and people who own them receive long-term benefits from their investment. Those who are renting such assets must continually compensate for their cost.

Also, the same monetary income may not provide all families with a similar standard of living. Families with a member who has special needs due to illness or disability often have higher expenditures. For others, access to goods and services may be restricted by language or cultural barriers which limit the exchange of information and may expose people to discrimination.

Non-monetary transfers, such as health care, public education and subsidized housing, are also excluded from the definition of income. However, such transfers increase families' consumption possibilities by lowering their expenditure on the subsidized items. In addition, if before-tax income is measured, the value of any taxes the family might pay is excluded. Changes to the tax system, however, affect families' command over resources.

As well, trading services, production by the family for its own use (such as growing vegetables or sewing clothing) and differences in shopping behaviour (such as the capacity to take advantage of bargains) may reduce the reliability of income as a basis of comparison of poverty among families.

Defining the income unit: Commonly, groups of people living in the same household define an "income unit" because it is assumed that expenditures are shared among people living together. Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs are applied to "economic families", people living together who are related legally or by kinship. This method, however, does not account for the financial benefits that individuals not related to each other may attain by sharing housing or food expenditures. Also, using the combined income of groups of people living in the same dwelling to determine families with low incomes does not recognize that income may be shared among people not living together. For example, it is common for parents to provide their children with considerable financial support while they are at school or just starting out, and for children to support elderly parents.

Family size: Since greater expenditures are required to meet the basic needs of each additional family member, it is common to raise the low-income threshold as family size increases. Typically, these increases are less than proportionate to the increase in family size. This reflects the belief that family members share common expenses, such as rent, and that children consume a smaller amount of certain basic necessities than do adults. However, since empirical data are not available, the estimation of the relative cost of an additional family member requires explicit judgement. As a result, there are large differences in the estimates of these additional costs.

Adjustments made for additional family members can have considerable impact on the types of families identified as living with low incomes. For example, minor adjustments can increase or decrease the proportion of families with children identified as having low incomes.

Geographical variations: The relationship between income and access to basic amenities tends to change with the size of urban or rural area in which a family lives. For example, housing costs often rise as urban size increases, although variations occur among cities in different regions. Household production of goods and services (food, clothing, etc.) and non-monetary transfers of goods and services among families may decrease with urban size. On the other hand, it is possible that transportation costs are higher in rural areas.

No one measure superior

Defining the low-income population is a challenging task and no one measure or approach is suitable for all purposes. Despite their short-comings, however, low income measures and poverty lines enhance the understanding of the socio-economic make-up of the country and have played important roles in the development of policy decisions.

Aron Spector *is an independent social housing consultant with ARK Research Associates.*

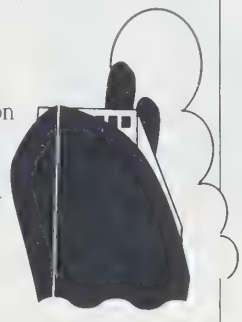
- More information on low-income measurements can be found in *Drawing the Line* by Patricia Ruggles.

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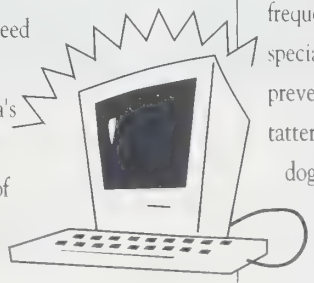
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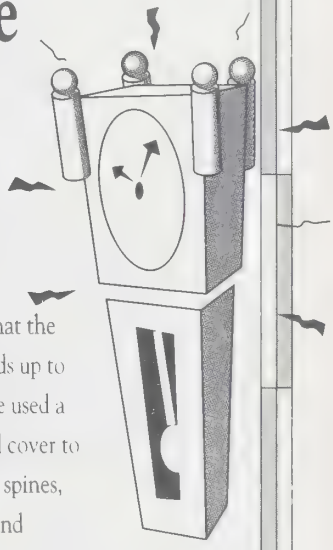


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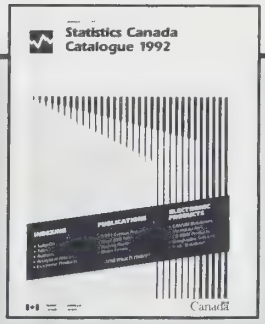


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CHILDREN AND ELDERLY PEOPLE:
SHARING PUBLIC INCOME RESOURCES

by Edward Ng

Recent changes in the incidence of low income among elderly people and children in Canada highlight the changes which can occur over time in the division of public resources. While the incidence of low income among those aged 65 and over has been steadily declining since the 1970s, it has not for children.

In general, income improvements among elderly people were related to the introduction of government income support programs,[1] whereas no similar programs were put in place for families with children. Family incomes have fluctuated with the economy, income growth has been sluggish, and the value of income from existing programs, such as Family Allowance Benefits and Child Tax Credits, has dropped.

In Canada and other developed countries, demographic changes associated with an aging population may increase the demands on health care and other programs to support the elderly and require shifts in the allocation of societal resources. At the same time, the decline in the number of children may release resources, for instance, from education budgets to programs which address the needs of the elderly. Achieving an equitable division of resources for both young and old, in the face of demographic changes, will pose a significant challenge to both governments and the private sector.



Incidence of low income

The economic situation of elderly people in Canada in general has improved during the past decade. The proportion of seniors living with low incomes in 1990 was one-half of what it had been a decade earlier. In 1990, 15% of people aged 65 and over had low incomes, down from 28% in 1980. As a result, the incidence of low income among elderly people is approaching the overall national incidence. A slight upward shift of Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, however, would result in considerably more seniors classified as having low incomes.

Among those aged 65 and over, unattached individuals are the most likely to have low incomes. In 1990, 35% of unattached seniors had low incomes, down from 62% in 1980, but still very high compared to senior couples. In 1990, the incidence of low income among senior couples was just 4%, down from 13% in 1980.

Unattached women aged 65 and over were more likely than their male counterparts to have low incomes. In 1990, 38% of unattached senior women, compared with 26% of comparable men, had low incomes.

Among children, there was no corresponding improvement in the incidence of low income between 1980 and 1990. More children lived in low income families in 1990 than had been the case a decade earlier. By 1990, 17% of children under age 16 were living in low-income situations, up from 15% in 1980. During the decade, however, the incidence of low income among children fluctuated, rising to a peak of 20% in 1984, and then declining to 15% in 1989. Any slight increase in the Low Income Cut-offs would have a negligible impact on the estimates since the incomes of most of these children's families are considerably below the Cut-offs.

Overall, children had a slightly higher incidence of low income in 1990 than did elderly people. In fact, children in some sub-groups are more likely than all other Canadians to be living in low-income situations. Rising divorce rates, in particular, have increased the risk of children living in families with low incomes.

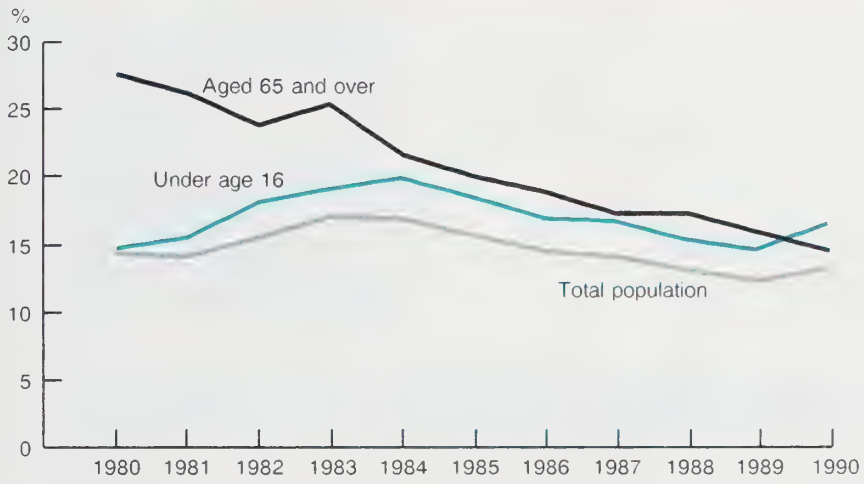
Children in lone-parent families were the most likely members of the population to be living in a low-income situation.[2] In 1990, 52% of lone-parent families and 9% of two-parent families with children had low incomes, compared with 51% and 9%, respectively, in 1980.

The incidence of low income was most pronounced for children living in lone-parent families headed by women. In 1990, 57% of female-headed lone-parent families had low incomes, up from 55% in 1980. Still, more than half of children in low-income situations were in two-parent families, 54% in 1990.

Two-parent families with one income earner were more likely than those with two earners to have low incomes. In 1990, 22% of two-parent families with one earner had low incomes, compared with 6% of those with two. The proportion with one earner, however, has been declining. In 1990, 19% of two-parent families had one earner and 58% had two. This was down from 30% and 47%, respectively, in 1980.

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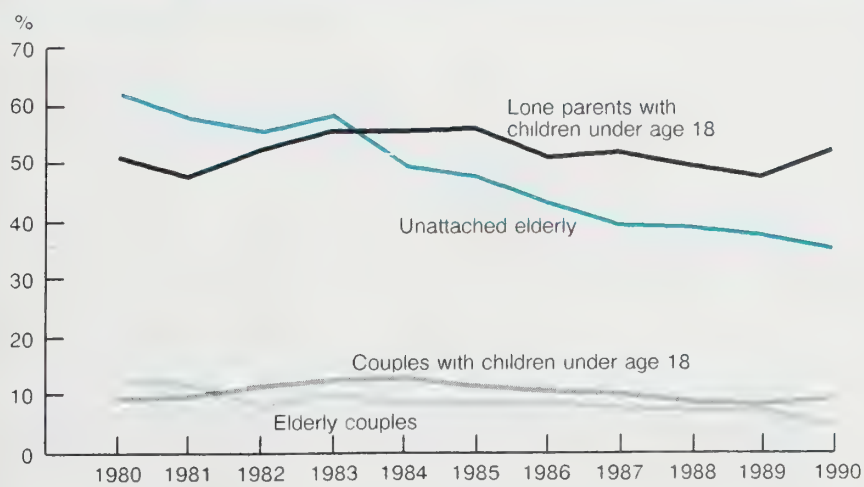
Incidence of low income (1978 base), 1980-1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207 and unpublished data.

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Incidence of low income (1978 base), by family type, 1980-1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207 and unpublished data.

Public funds for elderly people and children

Government programs are the main and increasingly important source of income for elderly people. In 1986, government transfer payments accounted for 52% of the incomes of seniors, up from 44% in 1971. Over the same period, income from private pensions plans rose to 16% from 13% and income from investments increased slightly to 21% from 20%. On the other hand, income from employment fell to 10% of seniors' incomes in 1986, from 22% in 1971.

Elderly women, in particular, rely on government transfer payment programs such as Old Age Security (OAS), introduced in 1952; the Guaranteed Income Supplement (GIS), introduced in 1966-67; Spouse's Allowance, introduced in 1975; and benefits from the employment-related income insurance programs, such as the

An aging population

The aging of the Canadian population is not a recent phenomenon, although during the past 15 years the pace has increased. From 1976 to 1986, the percentage of people aged 65 and older increased two percentage points to 10.6% from 8.7%. In contrast, during the previous thirty years, this proportion had increased just 1.5 percentage points, from 7.2% in 1946.

One crude indicator of the impact of population aging is the dependency ratio: the number of children and elderly people as a proportion of the working-age population. As a result of declining fertility, the population under age 18 is decreasing both in number and as a proportion of the working-age population. The reverse is occurring among those aged 65 and over. As a result, there are more seniors potentially drawing on the resources of the working-age population, while the reverse may be true for children.

[1] The discussion is limited to government income support and income insurance programs directed to elderly people and families with children. Education and health care programs are not considered.

[2] Children in families are defined as single children under age 18.

Canada and Quebec Pension Plans (CPP/QPP).[3] In 1986, these sources accounted for 60% of the income of senior women and 45% of the income of senior men. This is because senior men tend to receive a greater proportion of their incomes from employment, private pensions and investments, and as a result, tend to have higher average incomes than senior women.

While the average incomes of elderly people are still considerably below those of most other groups, since 1980 most people aged 65 and over have experienced rising incomes. Elderly couples had an average income of $34,800[4] in 1990, compared with $50,500 for all non-elderly couples. As well, there are still subgroups within the elderly population, such as unattached women, who have a relatively high incidence of low income.

The growth in real income of people aged 65 and over has happened largely because of income support received from public funds. As well, many elderly people have benefited from the expansion of tax-sheltered RRSPs and increased investment returns due to high interest rates. One indicator of the increased adequacy of elderly people's incomes is the drop over the last decade in the percentage of seniors who receive GIS, a supplement to OAS based on income level. About 43% of elderly people received some GIS and 7% received full GIS benefits in 1990, compared with 53% receiving some and 15% getting full GIS benefits in 1981.

In particular, incomes from the government-operated contributory retirement plans (Canada and Quebec Pension Plans), which provide all former members of the paid work force with a monthly retirement benefit, have improved. Government old age income transfers have also grown in real terms. The average real payment per senior reached $5,698 in 1989, up from $4,843 in 1971. Including CPP and QPP, the corresponding figure was $9,358 in 1989, up from $5,164 in 1971.[5] Thus, the maturation of the public pensions, in particular, boosted seniors' incomes.

In contrast to the situation among the elderly population, during the past decade, less than 2% of the average income of families with children came from government transfers. Government transfers for children were designed to supplement the regular earned income of families. Regular federal government transfers to families with children include Family Allowance (started in 1945), the Child Tax Credit (1978) and the Youth Allowance (phased out in 1972). Real income from government programs for children has been declining in recent years. Average real income support per child reached $751 in 1989, down from $913 in 1978, but up from $317 in 1971.

Given the predominant role that employment income plays in overall family incomes, the economic situation of children continues to fluctuate with the overall economy. During the past decade, many families with children have been struggling with sluggish income growth. Also, Social Assistance benefits received by families are insufficient to raise them above the Low Income Cut-offs.

Whereas both one-earner and dual-earner families experienced a substantial rise in average real family income during the 1960s, by the 1970s, real family incomes grew only for dual-earner families, primarily because of the increasing participation of married women in the paid labour force. By 1990, the average income of two-earner families with children was $57,187, compared with $41,129 for one-earner families with children.

Income redistribution

Recent income security programs alter the distribution of income for seniors and families with children (a process referred to as intragenerational sharing). Old Age Security payments, for example, were taxed back from seniors with net incomes above $50,000[6] starting from 1989. Likewise, only low- and middle-income families with children qualify for the Refundable Child Tax Credit. Also, Family Allowance was taxed back from parents with net incomes above $50,000.[6] As a result, these programs address the issue of income distribution within age groups (intragenerational equity), but not across all age groups (intergenerational equity).

However, as demographic shifts occur, and the elderly make up an increasing component of the population, shifts in resource allocation may well be required. As well, in the absence of an expanding economy, declines in the proportion of the working age population may result in a shrinking of available per capita resources. Alternately, the presence of a strong informal support network of family, friends and neighbours may reduce the degree to which elderly people utilize public resources.

Costs and contributions of seniors

Public programs are increasingly supporting seniors. This, in part, may have

[3] Plan's value based on worker's contributions.

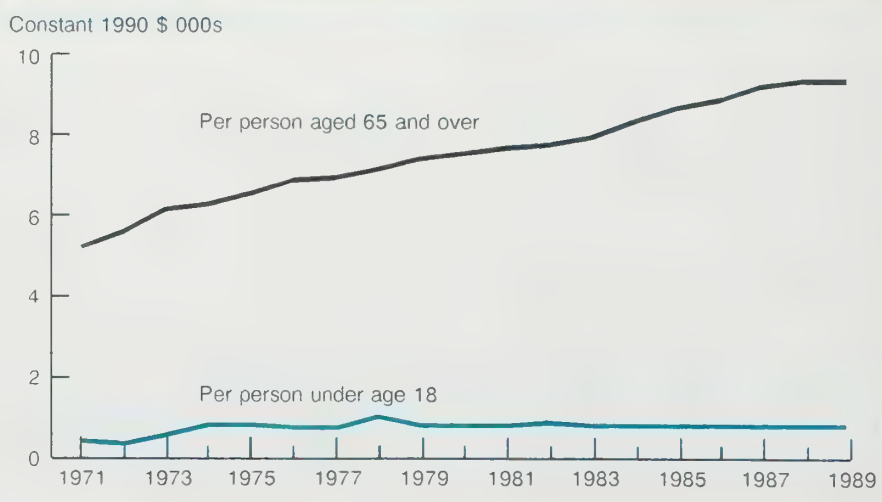
[4] All dollar figures are expressed in 1990 constant dollars unless noted otherwise.

[5] The estimates may have a slight upward bias. For instance, some people claiming retirement benefits from the CPP/QPP are aged 60–64 (7% for CPP and 17% for QPP in 1987). This percentage has been increasing slightly since legislation was changed to allow for people aged 60-64 to claim benefits. However, most recipients of the Survivor's Benefits are aged 65 and over (61% and 54% of CPP and QPP Survior's beneficiaries, respectively, in 1987), and the amount of benefits increases with age.

[6] Expressed in 1989 dollars.

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Average real income benefits of children and elderly people, 1971-1989



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 91-210, 91-518, 91-519; and Health and Welfare Canada, Social Security Statistics.



occurred because, with shifts in family roles over the past few decades and increasing independence of aged parents, family support for seniors has declined. Per capita government expenditure on elderly people in 1980 was estimated to be approximately 2.7 times greater than that allocated to the young.

However, these estimates do not include private costs incurred by families with children. As well, many elderly people continue to contribute directly to the economy past their retirement. Seniors make contributions to society in ways that children may not, as participants in voluntary work, as tax payers, as charitable donors and, because of their vast experience, as resource persons.

Conclusion

Changes to government income transfer programs have been made and have successfully reduced the incidence of low income among elderly people in Canada since the early 1970s. While elderly people still have relatively low incomes, children in low-income families are now one of the most economically disadvantaged groups in Canadian society.

The success of government policy in improving the lot of elderly people demonstrates that effective change can be made. As we enter a period of rapid growth in the elderly population, the challenge of ensuring an adequate allocation of resources for both children and seniors will likely increase.

In a recent report, the National Advisory Council on Aging recognized the importance of an equitable allocation of society's resources. While acknowledging that seniors are not the poorest segment of society, the Council cautioned that the younger generation should recognize the debt they owe seniors. They also warned of the long-term societal problems that may result from children being raised in economic deprivation. These children, they reported, are not likely to accomplish as much or be as healthy or highly-educated as other children, and thus may not be able to use their full potential for the benefit of society.[7]

Dividing an expanding economic pie poses relatively few problems to a society. Without sustained economic growth, however, finding an equitable balance in the distribution of resources can prove far more difficult. This will require continued sharing and cooperation among generations.

[7] See *National Advisory Council on Aging, 1989, 1989* and *Beyond: Challenges of an Aging Canadian Society.*

Edward Ng *is an analyst with* Canadian Social Trends.

- For further information on this topic, see "An Aging Society: Another Viewpoint", **Canadian Social Trends**, Spring 1991.

Intergenerational equity debate in the United States

The issue of intergenerational equity, or justice between generations, stimulated debate in the United States in the mid-1980s. While some controversy arose over the meaning of the term, most of the debate centred around the criteria used to guide difficult resource allocation choices in an aging society.

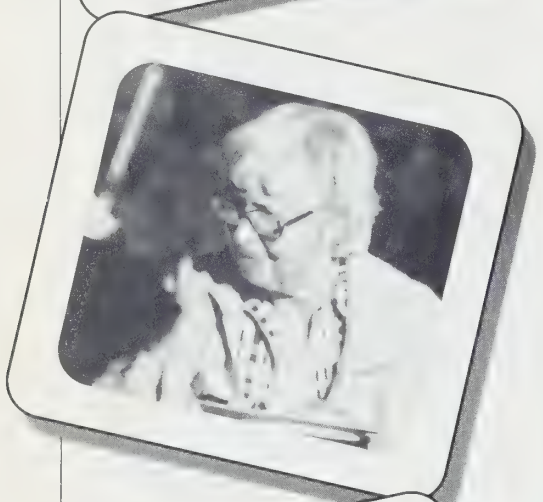
Essentially, the debate focused on how to distribute social benefits and burdens. While some emphasized the distribution of resources across age groups primarily according to individual merits and social contributions, others highlighted the importance of meeting individual needs or equal shares for all.

The issue of income equity, in particular, is a growing concern in the United States. According to statistics based on the Official U.S. Poverty Lines, the incidence of poverty among American children under age 14 in 1982 was 52% greater than among elderly people, whereas in 1970, it was 37% less. The expansion of Social Security benefits is identified as the main reason behind the reduction of "poverty" among the elderly.

Many researchers in the United States have concluded that the elderly have fared better than children since the 1960s, with respect to income and other indicators. However, it is not clear whether the introduction of government programs to improve the financial situation of elderly people reduced public resources available to meet the needs of other age groups, such as children. Many people have argued that wealth is often shared among the generations, such as when parents provide grown children with financial assistance. Also, during their retirement years, elderly people contribute to all members of society through volunteer work and paying taxes. Nonetheless, the financial needs of seniors have become a public concern, whereas the needs of children remain largely a family responsibility.

The Canadian situation is, however, very different from that in the United States. The United States does not have income support and medicare programs for all children the way family allowance and health care in Canada have been traditionally available for all children.









Well-being of Older Canadians

by Julie Keith and Laura Landry

Well-being in the retirement years has been the subject of much recent comment, particularly in light of the rapid aging of the Canadian population. In the next three decades, the effects of declining death rates, increased life expectancy, low birth rates, and past and projected immigration trends, will result in great changes in the structure of the Canadian population. By the time the "baby boomers" reach retirement age, they will form the basis of a very large and important component of the population.

Statistics Canada, in 1989, projected that the proportion of Canadians under age 18 would drop from 25% to 20% by 2011 and further to 18% by 2036. Over the same period, the share of those aged 65 and over was projected to grow from 11% to 16% and finally to 25%. The well-being of seniors will be a central issue in years to come because, it is forecast, those age 65 and over will be supported by a shrinking labour force (if the labour force is still comprised mainly of individuals aged 15-64). Thus, health, pensions, housing and other services for seniors will certainly continue to be topics of concern. — Ed.

Canadian men and women aged 55 and over generally report high levels of well-being as measured by their health, happiness and satisfaction with most aspects of life in the 1990s. Health and activity limitation in particular appear to be good indicators of a general sense of well-being. Other influencing factors include income level, marital status, job or main activity and friendships.

Health and happiness

Older Canadians generally report being healthy and happy. In the 1985 and 1990 General Social Surveys (GSS), two-thirds to three-quarters of respondents aged 55 and over reported being in good or excellent health. Also, in both years, just over 90% of Canadians aged 55 and over reported being happy or very happy.

Satisfaction - family, friends, housing and main activity

Canadians aged 55 and over generally reported that they were satisfied with their relationships with family and friends, current accommodations and jobs or main activities. This was the case for more than 90% of respondents in 1990, with women generally reporting higher levels of satisfaction than men. However, a slightly lower proportion of women than men reported satisfaction with their main activity.

In general, as the level of happiness decreased, the proportion reporting dissatisfaction with family relations increased. Among the very happy, only 2% of men and 1% of women reported any level of dissatisfaction with family relations in 1990. In contrast, among the very unhappy, 23% of men and 27% of women reported dissatisfied with family relations.

Few men and women reported dissatisfaction with their job or main activity. In 1990, for example, 7% of men and 4% of women reported being somewhat or very dissatisfied with their jobs or main activity. Among the very happy, only 4% of men and 2% of women reported being dissatisfied with their job or main activity. Among the very unhappy, 18% of men and 41% of women reported that they were very dissatisfied in this area.

In 1990, 34% of men and 17% of women aged 55 and over reported that they were employed; while 59% of men and 44% of women were retired; 36% of women reported that they were keeping house.

Among very happy men, only 1% reported being dissatisfied with friends,

while among the very unhappy, 12% reported that they were somewhat dissatisfied with this area of their lives.

With regard to friends, a greater percentage of unhappy women reported that the issue of relationships with friends was not applicable — raising questions regarding diminished contact with friends or fewer friends.

Of the very happy, only 2% reported any level of dissatisfaction with housing. This proportion jumped to 20% for the somewhat unhappy, and to 27% for the very unhappy.

Methodological considerations

Both the 1985 and 1990 General Social Surveys (GSS) asked Canadians a series of questions relating to life satisfaction. Four questions were repeated for the two surveys. Canadians were asked to report their level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their relationship with family, relationships with friends, current accommodation or housing and job or main activity. Although caution must be exercised due to slightly different wording of the questions each year, examination of general trends is possible. Differences in the findings of the two surveys might partially be attributed to the different timing of the two surveys – the 1985 GSS was conducted in September and October of that year and the 1990 survey in the period January through March. What is clear, however, is that the generally positive disposition of the population registered in 1985 was still there in 1990.

Activity limitation

Health status is directly related to overall happiness. In both 1985 and 1990, a greater proportion of the very unhappy than of the very happy reported fair or poor health; whereas more of the very happy reported good or excellent health.

Also, those with physical activity limitations were more likely than others to report being unhappy. In 1990, respondents were asked whether (if the activity limitation referred to a long term physical condition, mental condition or health problem) they were limited in the kind or amount of activity that they could do at home, at work, at school or in other activities such as transportation or leisure. As the proportion reporting activity limitation increased, so too did the level of unhappiness. For the very happy, 21% reported activity limitation. This figure more than tripled to 70% for the very unhappy. Overall, 28% of Canadians aged 55 and over report activity limitation. For men, the proportion was 25% and for women, it was 30%.

Income and level of happiness

Happiness level did not depend directly upon income. Overall, 56% of men and 49% of woman aged 55 and over reported being very happy.

Nevertheless, very few very happy men (4%) and women (9%) had incomes of less than $10,000. About 23% of the very happy men had incomes between $10,000 and $19,999 and between $20,000 and $39,999. Fewer very happy women (15%) had very high incomes ($40,000 or more), whereas the greatest proportion of very happy men (29%) fell into this highest income category.

Well-being of Canadians aged 55 and over

Health and activity limitation appear to be very good predictors of a general sense of well-being. Happiness decreases as the proportion of those reporting good or excellent health decreases and as the proportion reporting activity limitation increases.

Happiness and specific satisfactions also appear to be very closely linked. The proportion reporting dissatisfaction with each of five specific areas studied rises as the level of unhappiness rises. Behind the issue of happiness (an individual's perception of their state at one point in time) is a more complex picture of satisfactions and dissatisfactions suggesting that specific aspects of life are more problematic at different age levels.

For instance, the fact that very unhappy men in three age groups (65-69, 70-74, 80 and over) nevertheless reported high satisfaction on all five specific dimensions suggests that general happiness and specific satisfaction on a variety of issues do no necessarily coincide. Other aspects of life need to be explored to explain the variation in well-being. Variables such as activity limitation, a high proportion being reported for the three age groups in question, may prove important. The interaction of dimensions such as health, activity limitation, marital status and income level with the five areas studied, for each sex and across different age groups suggests a high degree of unexplored complexity.

Julie Keith *and* **Laura Landry** *are research assistants with* Canadian Social Trends.

Self-reported health and happiness states of Canadians aged 55 and over, 1985 and 1990

	Men		Women	
	1985	1990	1985	1990
	%			
Health status				
Excellent	25	32	23	27
Good	42	46	44	48
Fair	23	17	26	19
Poor	9	4	7	6
Not stated	1	1	1	1
Happiness status				
Very happy	46	56	45	49
Somewhat happy	48	39	49	43
Somewhat unhappy	4	2	5	5
Very unhappy	1	1	1	1
No opinion, not stated	1	3	1	2

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, Cycle 5, unpublished data.



PHYSICAL FITNESS

by Pierre Gauthier and Andrea Haman

Although Canadians were much more physically active in 1988 than in 1981, only a small percentage regularly participated in activities intense enough to produce cardiovascular benefits. In 1988, the most popular activities were walking, gardening, swimming and bicycling. Young people under age 20 were more likely than older people to participate in scheduled, directed or coached and competitive physical activities, whereas casually organized activities were more common among older people.



Getting Bigger Faster

CANADA'S POPULATION was enumerated at 27,296,859 on June 4, 1991, an increase of 7.9%, or nearly 2 million persons, since the 1986 Census.

The 1991 Census recorded the first increase in the intercensal population growth rate since the 1951 Census. Although Canada's population has continued to increase, five-year growth rates declined steadily until 1986. The recent increase is mainly due to increased immigration.

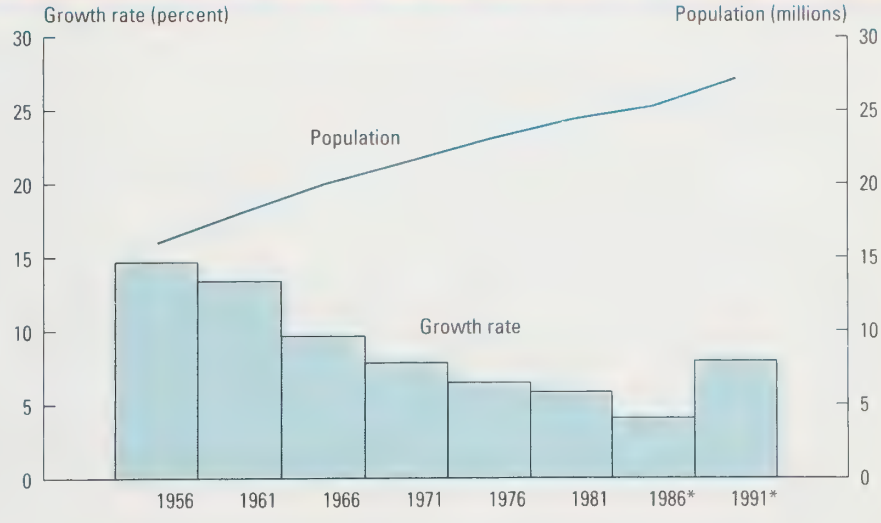
HOW WE'VE GROWN

British Columbia, Ontario, Yukon Territory and the Northwest Territories all had population growth rates exceeding the national rate of 7.9%.

British Columbia, the only province which has had a growth rate above the national average since it joined Confederation, was the fastest growing province. British Columbia's population increased by 13.8%. Ontario was close behind with an increase of 10.8%.

The Yukon Territory, which has the country's smallest total population (27,797), had a growth rate for the 1986-1991 period of 18.3%. This is a significant increase over the 1.5% growth rate during the previous five-year period. The population of the Northwest Territories increased by 10.4% to 57,649. While not as high as the 14.2% population increase recorded by the 1986 Census, the growth rate of the Northwest Territories continued to be higher than the national five-year growth rate.

POPULATION, CANADA, SHOWING TOTAL POPULATION AND GROWTH RATE, 1956-1991



* excludes data from incompletely enumerated Indian reserves and Indian settlements.

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada

FIRST CENSUS DATA PRODUCTS

On June 4, 1991, Statistics Canada conducted the 17th Census of Population and Housing since Confederation. With the information reported by more than 27 million people in over 10 million households, Statistics Canada is developing a new statistical portrait of our country. On April 28, 1992, in the first of ten data announcements, the agency released two publications containing information on population and dwelling counts:

- **A National Overview** (93-301) contains 11 tables with 1991 population and dwelling counts for Canada, the provinces and territories, federal electoral districts, census divisions, census metropolitan areas, census agglomerations as well as counts of the urban and rural population. Census subdivisions appear in three tables, rank-ordered in size, greatest percentage population growth and greatest percentage population decline.

- **Census Divisions and Census Subdivisions** (93-304) presents 1991 and 1986 population and 1991 dwelling counts, land area and population density for these two types of geographic areas. Census divisions include counties and regional districts; census subdivisions include cities, municipalities, towns, townships, and villages. A geographic index is included and census divisions and subdivisions are grouped by province and territory.

- **Census Divisions and Census Subdivisions** is also available on diskette (93-304D). The diskette is accompanied by software documentation and all documentation in the publication relating to the data.

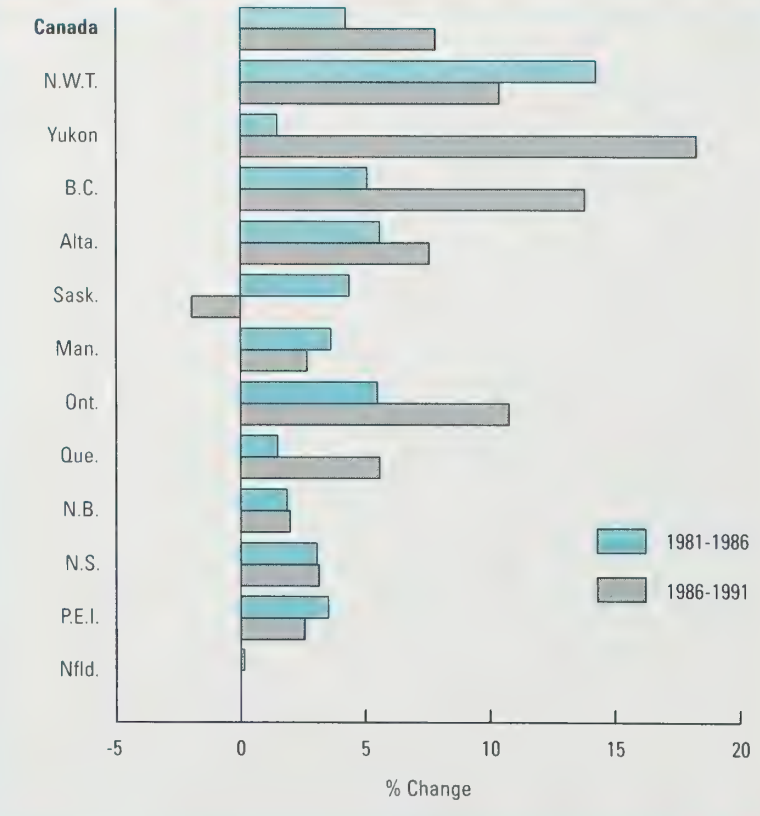
Quebec's population growth rate was 5.6%, up from 1.5% between 1981 and 1986. This is the first time since the 1956 Census that Quebec's growth rate increased from one census period to the next.

Alberta's population increased by 7.6% between 1986 and 1991, up from the 5.7% increase for the previous five-year period, but slightly lower than the national rate of 7.9%. This is the

POPULATION, CANADA, PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES, 1986 AND 1991

Province/Territory	1986 Population	1991 Population
Canada	25,309,331	27,296,859
Newfoundland	568,349	568,474
Prince Edward Island	126,646	129,765
Nova Scotia	873,176	899,942
New Brunswick	709,442	723,900
Quebec	6,532,461	6,895,963
Ontario	9,101,694	10,084,885
Manitoba	1,063,016	1,091,942
Saskatchewan	1,009,613	988,928
Alberta	2,365,825	2,545,553
British Columbia	2,883,367	3,282,061
Yukon Territory	23,504	27,797
Northwest Territories	52,238	57,649

POPULATION GROWTH RATES BY PROVINCE AND TERRITORY, 1981-1991



first time since the 1951 Census that Alberta's five-year growth rate did not exceed the national average.

Newfoundland's total population in 1991 differed little from what it was in both 1981 and 1986. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick experienced slight increases in their population growth rates between the 1981-1986 and 1986-1991 periods. Two provinces, Prince Edward Island and Manitoba, experienced slower growth for the 1986-1991 period than during the previous period 1981-1986.

Saskatchewan was the only province with a population drop – declining by approximately 21,000 from an all time high of slightly over 1 million in 1986 to below 1 million in 1991.

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION, CANADA, PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES, 1951, 1971 AND 1991

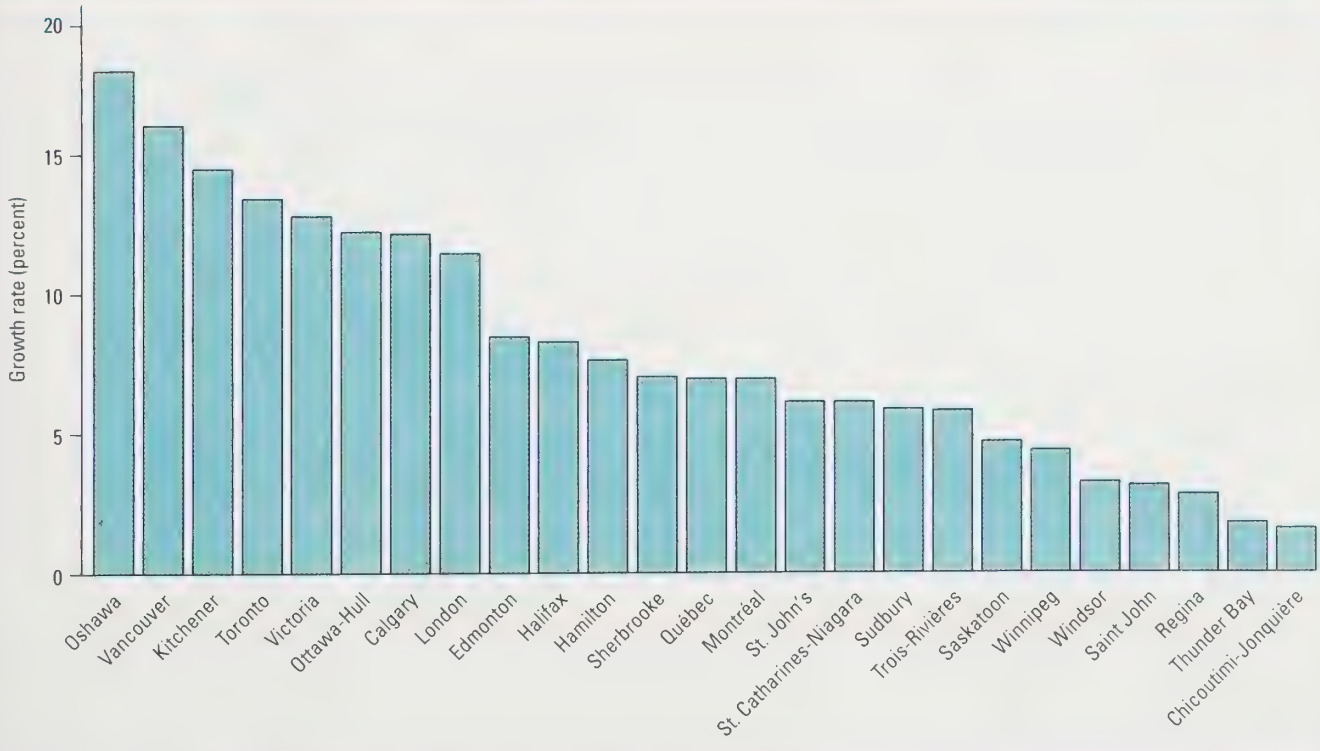
Province/Territory	Percentage Distribution		
	1951	1971	1991
Canada	100.0	100.0	100.0
Newfoundland	2.6	2.4	2 1
Prince Edward Island	0.7	0.5	0.5
Nova Scotia	4.6	3.7	3.3
New Brunswick	3.7	2.9	2.7
Quebec	28.9	27.9	25.3
Ontario	32.8	35.7	36.9
Manitoba	5.5	4.6	4.0
Saskatchewan	5.9	4.3	3.6
Alberta	6.7	7.5	9.3
British Columbia	8.3	10.1	12.0
Yukon Territory	0.1	0.1	0.1
Northwest Territories	0.1	0.2	0 2

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION 40 YEAR TREND CONTINUES

Decennial censuses taken since Newfoundland joined Confederation in 1949 show that the distribution of Canada's population among the provinces and territories has shifted in favour of British Columbia, Alberta and Ontario.

Of all the provinces, only Alberta and British Columbia have experienced continuous increases in their percentage share of Canada's population over the last forty years. In 1951, 15.0% of Canada's population lived in Alberta and British Columbia. By 1991, this proportion had increased to 21.3%. Despite a slight decrease in its share of the population in the 1970s, Ontario's share of the population has increased from 32.8% in 1951 to 36.9% in 1991.

GROWTH RATES OF CANADA'S 25 CENSUS METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1986-1991



After two decades of slight change, the shares of Prince Edward Island and the Northwest Territories have remained stable since 1971. Yukon's share of the population has not changed since 1951.

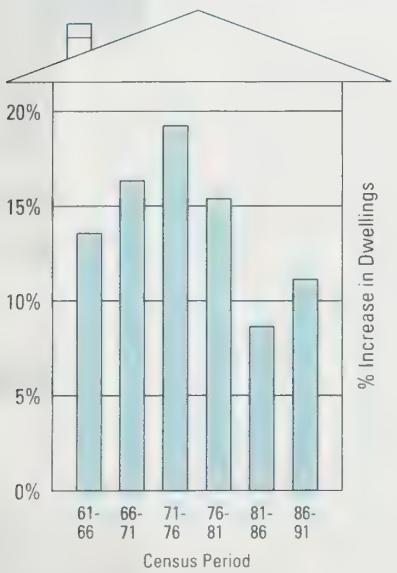
New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Manitoba and Saskatchewan have all experienced small but continuous declines in their shares of the population between 1951 and 1991. Over the same period, Quebec's proportion has declined from 28.9% to 25.3%.

THE BIGGEST GET BIGGER

The 1991 Census revealed that 61.1% of Canada's population live in census metropolitan areas – more than ever before. Between 1986 and 1991 , every one of Canada's 25 metropolitan areas grew, with the result that there were 1.5 million more people living in these areas in 1991 than in 1986.

Ten census metropolitan areas – Toronto, Vancouver, Ottawa-Hull, Edmonton, Calgary, London, Kitchener, Halifax, Victoria and Oshawa – had higher rates of growth than Canada as a whole. The country's fastest growing metropolitan area was Oshawa, with a growth rate of 18.0%. Vancouver was next, with 16.1%, followed by Kitchener with 14.5%.

DWELLING GROWTH, 1961 – 1991



Over the five-year census period, the population of metropolitan Montreal increased by 7.0%, bringing it above 3 million for the first time. During the same period, Halifax was the fastest growing census metropolitan area in the Atlantic provinces and its population climbed by 8.3% to pass the 300,000 mark. Saint John, with a growth rate of 3.1%, became the 24th largest metropolitan area in 1991, up from 25th place in 1986.

CENSUS METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1986 AND 1991

Census Metropolitan Area	Rank		Population	
	1986	1991	1986	1991
Toronto	1	1	3,431,981A	3,893,046
Montréal	2	2	2,921,357	3,127,242
Vancouver	3	3	1,380,729	1,602,502
Ottawa-Hull	4	4	819,263	920,857
Edmonton	5	5	774,026A	839,924
Calgary	6	6	671,453A	754,033
Winnipeg	7	7	625,304	652,354
Québec	8	8	603,267	645,550
Hamilton	9	9	557,029	599,760
London	11	10	342,302	381,522
St. Catharines-Niagara	10	11	343,258	364,552
Kitchener	12	12	311,195	356,421
Halifax	13	13	295,922A	320,501
Victoria	14	14	255,225A	287,897
Windsor	15	15	253,988	262,075
Oshawa	16	16	203,543	240,104
Saskatoon	17	17	200,665	210,023
Regina	18	18	186,521	191,692
St. John's	19	19	161,901	171,859
Chicoutimi-Jonquière	20	20	158,468	160,928
Sudbury	21	21	148,877	157,613
Sherbrooke	22	22	129,960	139,194
Trois-Rivières	23	23	128,888	136,303
Saint John	25	24	121,265	124,981
Thunder Bay	24	25	122,217	124,427

A – Adjusted figure due to boundary change

DWELLING GROWTH

Growth in occupied private dwellings between 1986 and 1991 was 11.4%. While this was faster than the 8.6% increase recorded between 1981 and 1986, it fell short of increases during the previous four census periods.

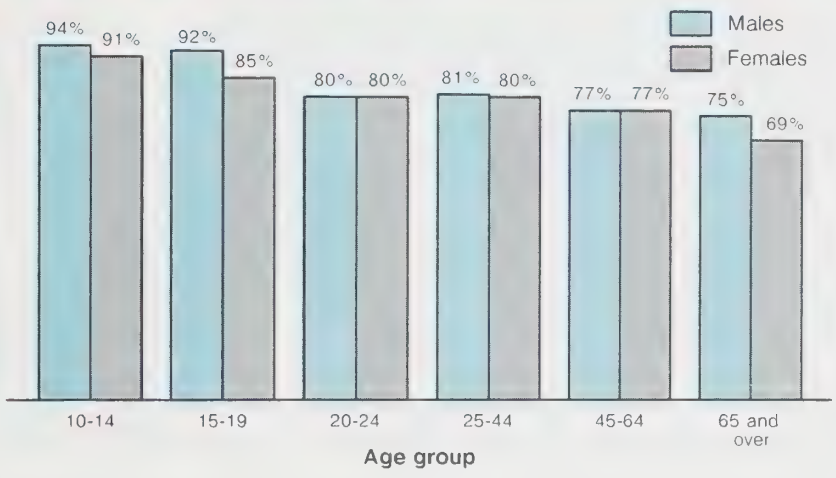
Canadians more physically active

During the 1980s, Canadians adopted a more active lifestyle, spending more of their leisure time participating in physical activities. By 1988, 79% of Canadians aged 15 and over were spending at least three hours each week engaged in some form of physical activity,[1] up substantially from 57% in 1981. Participation in all types of physical activity increased between 1981 and 1988, with one exception. During that period, the number of joggers and runners declined by one-third.

In 1988, men (92%) and women (85%) aged 15-19 were the most physically active Canadians, whereas senior men (75%) and women (69%) were the least active.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

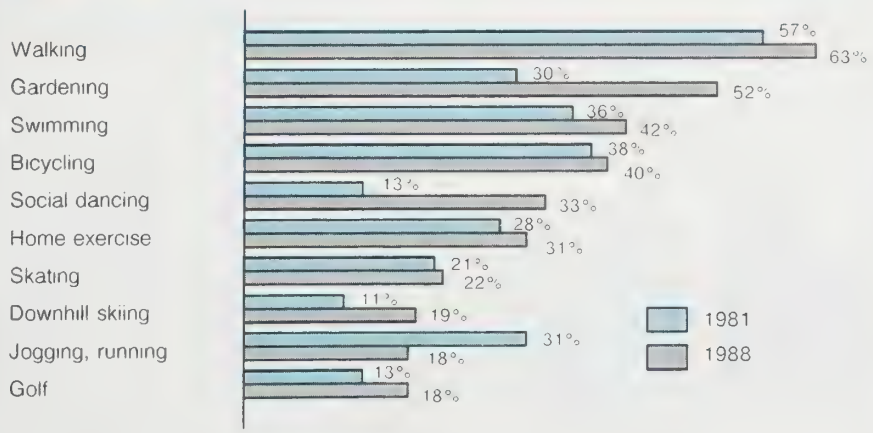
Active Canadians,[1] 1988



[1] Participated in physical activity for three or more hours of leisure time per week during at least nine months of the year.
Source: Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute, *Campbell's Survey on Well-Being in Canada, 1988*.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Recreational activities of Canadians aged 10 and over,[1] 1981 and 1988



[1] Percentage participating at least once in the year.
Source: Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute, *Campbell's Survey on Well-Being in Canada, 1988*.

Walking most popular activity

In 1988, the most popular physical recreation activities among Canadians aged 10 and over were walking[2] (63%), gardening (50%), swimming (42%), bicycling (41%), social dancing (33%) and home exercise (31%). Such activities gave most Canadians easy access to an active lifestyle with their relatively low cost, casual scheduling, proximity to home and little need for supervision or training. In addition, about 20% of Canadians participated in each of skating, downhill skiing, jogging or running and golf.

A greater percentage of males than females participated in gardening, bicycling, skating, downhill skiing and jogging or running, whereas more women than men took part in walking, swimming, social dancing and home exercise.

Low intensity activities dominate

Most Canadians were active in 1988, although few participated in exercises considered physically intensive. Only 11% of Canadians regularly participated in an aerobic activity[3] every other day for at least 30 minutes. Although almost 40% of Canadians were active as frequently, the

Sport facilities

The change in the number and type of sport facilities during the 1980s may reflect shifting public interest in various sports. From 1982 to 1988, the number of golf courses increased 50% to 938, and the number of curling clubs and skiing facilities each increased about 40% to 111 and 226, respectively. In contrast, the number of bowling and billiard facilities declined 11% to 1,111 and roller skating facilities declined 48% to 45.

Among spectator sports, the number of commercial facilities increased 25% between 1982 and 1988 to 1,344. Also on the increase were the number of professional sport clubs (103 in 1988) and horse-race tracks (792 in 1988).

[1] Three hours of leisure time each week for at least nine months of the year.

[2] Percentage of the population that participated at least once in the year.

[3] Assumes that cardiovascular health benefits from a pattern of physical activity lasting 30 minutes or more, every other day, at 50% or more of individual capacity.

intensity of their activity did not result in similar aerobic benefits, whereas 14% regularly participated in aerobic activity but for less than 30 minutes at a time. A full 38% of the population exercised irregularly and for less than 30 minutes at a time.

Males (14%) were more likely than females (8%) to participate in aerobic activities for 30 minutes every other day in 1988. However, for both males and females, the aerobic benefits derived from the more common activities, such as walking, increased with age. As a result, 50% of men and 30% of women aged 65 and over regularly participated in aerobic exercise.



Promoting physical fitness

The federal government promotes physical fitness through Fitness Canada, whose objective is to raise the fitness level of Canadians by increasing participation in physical activity. In 1989-90, Fitness Canada provided almost $8 million in funding to 39 organizations and special projects. These included major national associations and special target-group organizations involved in fitness, universities conducting fitness-related research, and arm's-length corporations providing services related to fitness.

Participaction, in particular, is an arm's-length, non-profit corporation launched by the Department of Fitness and Amateur Sport in 1971 with a mandate to use mass media to change Canadians' attitudes and values about fitness. Through time and space donated by the media, *Participaction* has become one of the largest and most influential communications companies in Canada.

Exercising outside the home common

Canadians usually exercised out-of-doors (32%), at home (28%), at a club or community centre (26%) or at school or work (10%) in 1988. Many (37%) usually exercised with friends, although nearly as many (35%) exercised alone, while others exercised with family members (18%), classmates or co-workers (5%). In 1988, older Canadians were less likely than younger people to frequent commercial clubs or recreational facilities.

Most participate in scheduled activities

Among physically active people, 45% were weekly participants in a scheduled physical activity in 1988, whereas 41% participated in casually organized activities. A smaller proportion (22%) took part in directed or coached physical activities, while 17% participated in competitive physical activity.

Competitive physical activities

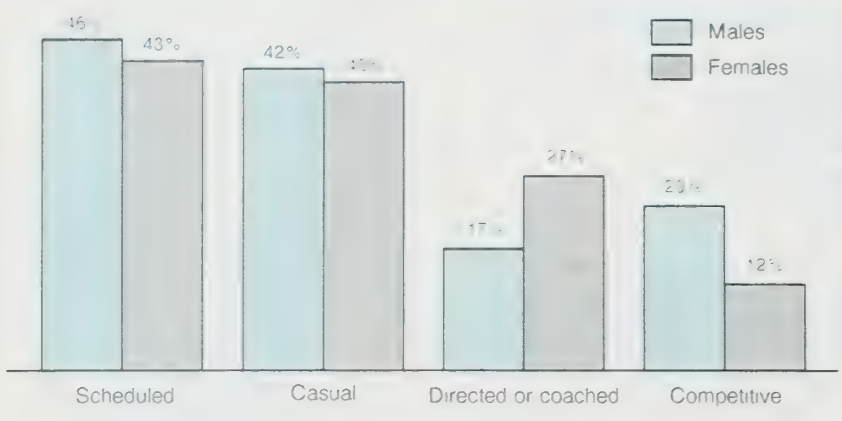
Competitive sports are more common among Canadians aged 19 and under, many of whom compete on school-related teams. In 1988, 42% of boys and 37% of girls aged 10-14 were involved in competitive physical activity. The gender gap widened in the 15-19 age group, with 44% of men and 28% of women participating in competitive activities. Within older age groups, participation dropped to 10% to 24% for men and 10% to 15% for women, depending on their age.

Directed or coached activities

Directed or coached activities range from gymnastics' instruction to aerobics classes and from little league baseball to Olympic competition, encompassing a wide variety of activities and involving varying degrees of skill among both instructors and participants. Of all young Canadians aged 10-14, 52% of boys and 70% of girls participated in directed or coached activities. Among those aged 15-19, the gap between the genders was much narrower, with 46% of men and 49% of women participating. In comparison, only 11% of men and 20% of women aged 20 and over participated in directed or coached activities.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Nature[1] of weekly physical activities, 1988



[1] Includes activities making the greatest contribution to fitness of people aged 10 and over, active at least once a week in the three months prior to the survey. Multiple answers were possible so totals do not add to 100.

Source: Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute, Campbell's Survey on Well-Being in Canada, 1988

AMATEUR SPORT IN CANADA



Millions of amateur athletes in Canada compete in various team and individual sports with different levels of difficulty. For many of these athletes, not only talent and dedication determine the success they can expect to achieve — the quality of coaching and training and the availability of financial assistance are also important influences.

In Canada, the vast majority of coaches and trainers are volunteers, with fewer than 1% indicating coaching as their primary occupation. To enhance the skills of amateur sport coaches, the Canadian Coaching Association has established a training program. In addition, Sport Canada, a federal government agency, is assisting the Canadian Coaching Association to improve the quality of coaching in Canada through legislation requiring funded coaches to meet certain training requirements.

Sport Canada also funds amateur sport competitions and Canada's best amateur athletes. In 1991, over 850 amateur athletes, many of whom would compete in the 1992 Winter and Summer Olympic Games, received financial assistance from Sport Canada.

Amateur athletes

Estimating the number of amateur sport athletes in Canada is difficult because many athletes compete in more than one sport, some at more than one level, and numerous leagues do not maintain records on the number of competitors. However, the results of the Campbell's Survey on Well-Being in Canada provide an estimate of amateur sport participation. According to that survey, 2.4 million Canadians participated in physical activity at the competitive level in 1988, and over 3 million people participated in physical activities that were directed or coached.

Coaching

For many young Canadians, achieving world-class ability in amateur sport depends on direction from coaches and trainers. Compared to other countries, however, the number of full-time paid professional coaches in Canada is low. For example, in the United States, universities employ thousands of full-time professional coaches, and at the high school level, coaching is often part of a teacher's job description. In Canada, the coaching network is largely volunteer-based, with teachers or community coaches offering their time after school or on weekends.

The Coaching Association of Canada estimated that there were 400,000 coaches in Canada in 1989, fewer than 1% of whom were full-time paid professionals. By 1991, the Association had trained 335,000 in the theory, technical and practical aspects of over 70 different sports through the National Coaching Certification

The 1988 Campbell's Survey on the Well-Being of Canadians was conducted by the Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute through the support of the Campbell Company, Fitness Canada, and Health and Welfare Canada. It updated the information collected by the 1981 Canada Fitness Survey, with results based on responses from 4,000 Canadians aged 10 and over, the majority of whom participated in the 1981 survey. Data from both surveys were used to compare changes in the physical recreation habits and physical fitness of Canadians between 1981 and 1988.

Program. Among trained coaches, 19% have certification at level one, 4% have certification at the next level (level two) and fewer than 1% have certification at level three or above. To improve coaching standards in Canada, Sport Canada legislation requires all funded national level coaches to have completed the highest certification, level four, by 1992.

Women are under-represented among trained coaches in Canada. By July 1991, 34% of the coaches who had received training from the National Coaching Certification Program were women. Among coaches who received training in 1991, women accounted for 34% of those certified as level one, 30% of those certified as level two and 18% of those certified as level three.

Swimming, figure skating and alpine skiing have a high representation of paid professional coaches, and many young Canadians succeed at world competitions in these fields. Other sports with many trained coaches include soccer, hockey, gymnastics, softball, basketball, baseball, football, bowling, curling, ringette, tennis, volleyball, track and field and those related to the Special Olympics.

Funding amateur sport

The Canadian government provides policy direction and financial support to Canadian amateur sport at the national and international level through Sport Canada. During the 1980s, the annual federal budget for amateur athletics exceeded $50 million.

Sport Canada funds and co-ordinates the activities of about 85 national and other sport organizations. It helps pay for professional, technical and coaching staff, and defrays the costs of meetings, coaching clinics and seminars, and national and international competitions. Sport Canada also funds Canada's top amateur athletes, those ranked either 1 to 16 in the world, or whom they have identified as having the potential to advance to the top 16.

Funded athletes

Sport Canada's Athlete Assistance Program financially assists about 850 top amateur athletes with day-to-day living and training expenses. During the 1980s, payments to Canada's top amateur athletes through the program averaged $5 million per year.

Of the amateur athletes sponsored by Sport Canada through the program in August 1991, 61% were men and 39% were women. The greatest number of funded athletes were aged 20-24 (48%), followed by those aged 25-29 (28%). Young people aged 15-19 accounted for 15% of funded athletes, while 7% were aged 30-34, and only 3% were aged 35 and over.

Olympic athletes

Of the almost 2.5 million Canadians who participate competitively in physical activities, only a very small number have the opportunity to represent Canada at the Olympic games. In 1988, Canada's combined Summer and Winter Olympic teams had 471 competitors: 87 men and 30 women on the Winter Olympic team and 241 men and 113 women on the Summer Olympic team. The majority of these athletes (55%) were aged 15-24, 42% were aged 25-34, and just 3% were aged 35 and over. Almost 90% of the members of both the 1988 Summer and Winter Olympic teams were residents of Ontario, Quebec, Alberta and British Columbia.

The size of the Olympic team varies from one competition to another and reflects the cost of sending a team to the host city. In 1988, the Winter Olympic team that competed at Calgary was 70% larger than the winter team that had been sent to Sarajevo, Yugoslavia in 1984. Conversely, the 1988 Summer Olympic team that competed in Seoul, Korea was 24% smaller than the 1984 summer team that had represented Canada in Los Angeles, California.

Sport Canada's "Best Ever" winter program supported about 100 athletes who competed in 12 sports in the 1992 Winter Olympics in Albertville, France. Similarly, the "Best Ever" summer program supports about 500 athletes who will represent Canada at the 1992 Summer Olympics in Barcelona, Spain.

Pierre Gauthier *is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada and* **Andrea Haman** *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

- More information on amateur sport can be obtained from the Coaching Association of Canada, the Canadian Olympic Association and the Canadian Sports Information Resource Centre.

World class athletes

With one exception, Canada has sent an Olympic team to every Summer Olympic Games since 1908 and to every Winter Olympic Games since 1924. The exception was the boycott of the 1980 Summer Games in Moscow to protest the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. By 1988, Canada had won 40 gold medals at Summer Olympic Games and 13 gold medals at Winter Olympic Games. Canada also sends athletes to other major international sporting competitions such as the Pan American, Commonwealth and World University Games.

During the 1980s, Canadians have been world champions or world record-holders in alpine skiing, speed skating, figure skating, yachting, track and field, equestrian events, swimming, trap shooting, boxing and wrestling.

Occupations in sport and recreation

In 1986, 46,240 people had occupations in sport and recreation in Canada. From 1971 to 1986, the number of men in such occupations more than doubled and the number of women quadrupled. The fastest-growing occupations were referees and related officials, whose numbers increased to 1,105 in 1986 from 225 in 1971.

Overall, 1.5 times as many men as women held occupations in sport and recreation, although the proportion varied among different activities. Most sport and recreation supervisors, for example, were men (71%), while most coaches and trainers were women (57%). However, the majority of full-time coaches and trainers were men (66%).

Like participants in directed or coached activities, Canadians employed in sport and recreation tended to be young. In 1986, 45% of males and 52% of females employed in sport and recreation were under age 25.

CHARITABLE DONATIONS

by Daniela Lucaciu



Canadian tax-filers continue to contribute an increasing amount of money to charity each year. However, the rate of increase in donations has been smaller since 1988. This, in part, is due to the effects of sluggish economic growth. Older people and those with high incomes tend to be the most likely to donate to charity and to make the highest contributions. Also, while the vast majority of tax-filers contribute less that 1% of their total income to charity, the proportion donating more than 1% again tends to increase with age and income.



Contributors and donations

Between 1984 and 1990, the number of tax-filers reporting charitable donations, as well as the total amount donated, increased. By 1990, about 5.3 million tax-filers reported contributions totalling almost $3 billion. In comparison, about 4 million people reported donations of $1.8 billion in 1984.

Annual percentage increases in both the number of contributors and amount donated were much larger during the mid-1980s than between 1988 and 1990, when economic growth was slower. Also, 1988 was the first year affected by tax system reforms. These reforms changed the way charitable donations could be used as a tax shelter.

Age and provincial differences

Fewer than one-third (29%) of all Canadian tax-filers reported charitable donations in 1990, with these donations averaging $544. While this average may appear relatively high, some tax-filers make very large donations which raise the average considerably. The median donation — the amount where one-half of tax-filers claim more and the other half claim less — was $120 in 1990.

The percentage of people making donations increases with age. Also, the average age of donors increased to 47 years in 1990 from 42 the previous year. While 9% of tax-filers under age 25 made donations, the proportion rose to 24% for those aged 25-34 and to 33% for people aged 35-44. Increases were smaller among older people, reaching 39% for seniors. Similarly, average contributions tend to increase with age, a pattern related to generally higher incomes among older people. Claimed donations ranged from an average of $166 for tax-filers aged 15-24 to $614 for those aged 45-54. Tax-filers aged 55 and over made average contributions of around $800.

Tax exemptions

Charitable donations made to registered Canadian charities (including religious organizations), athletic associations, universities and municipalities, as well as to the United Nations may be used as a personal exemption to reduce a tax-filer's income for income tax purposes.

To use charitable donations as a personal tax exemption, a receipt must be provided by the tax-filer. Many tax-filers, however, do not get receipts or do not provide them to Revenue Canada. Some people contribute to charity but do not claim their donation for tax purposes. Also, in the case of husband-wife families, the spouse with the highest income may claim all donations, even though both spouses may have contributed. Therefore, the 29% of tax-filers who claimed charitable donations in 1990 clearly underestimates the proportion of people who contributed that year. Similarly, charitable donations recorded by Revenue Canada represent less than the total amount contributed by Canadians.

Tax treatment of charitable donations

Throughout the 1980s, tax-filers were not required to pay full federal income taxes on charitable contributions valued up to 20% of their net income. Although official receipts are now required to be able to claim donations for tax purposes, between 1980 and 1983, a tax-filer could claim up to $100 in charitable contributions without receipts. Changes to the income tax system introduced in 1988 affected the percentage of federal income tax levied on charitable donations.

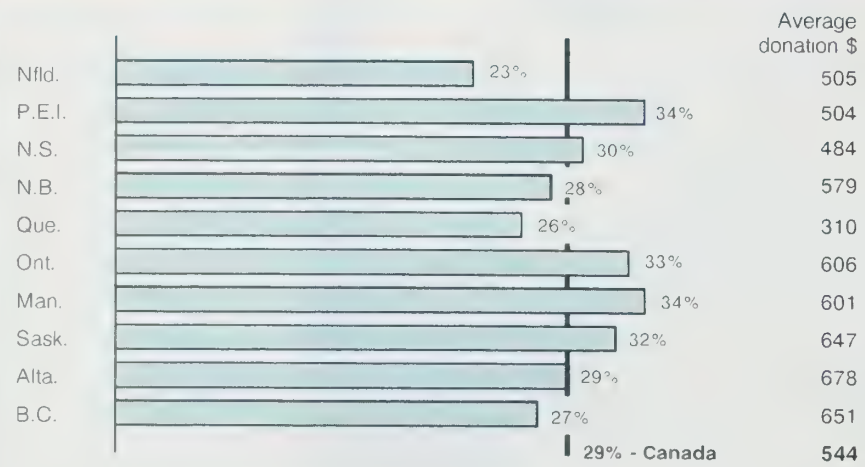
From 1980 to 1987, charitable donations had been deducted directly from the taxable income on which the tax-filer's federal income tax was calculated. As a person's tax bracket increased, the tax relief from charitable donations increased to a corresponding percentage. For example, federal income taxes owed by people in the 17% income tax bracket (the lowest bracket) were reduced by 17% of the value of their charitable donations. Similarly, federal income taxes owed by those in the 34% income tax bracket (the highest) were reduced by 34% of the value of their contributions. Therefore, no federal income taxes were levied on charitable donations (valued up to 20% of net income), regardless of the person's tax bracket.

Since 1988, however, there has been a non-refundable tax credit for charitable donations subtracted directly from the calculated amount of federal income tax owed by the tax-filer. Seventeen percent of the first $250 of charitable contributions, plus 29% of any additional contributions, may be subtracted from federal income taxes payable. In other words, these percentages are fixed and no longer are dependent on the tax-filer's income-tax bracket.

As a result of changes to the federal income tax system in 1988, people in high income tax brackets now receive less tax relief than in previous years from the same amount of charitable donations and may pay federal income tax on a portion of income donated to charity.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of tax-filers claiming charitable donations and average donation, by province, 1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division, unpublished data.

Provincial differences exist in the percentage of tax-filers making charitable donations and the average amount given. Whereas one-third of tax-filers in Prince Edward Island, Manitoba and Ontario contributed to charity in 1990, this was the case for fewer than one-quarter in Newfoundland. Average donations ranged from highs of $678 in Alberta and about $650 in both British Columbia and Saskatchewan, to $310 in Quebec. Although average donations tended to be below the national average in the Atlantic provinces, this is likely a reflection of lower average incomes in this region.

More income, more likely to donate

The likelihood of contributing to a charity generally increases with income level. Tax-filers with high incomes have more discretionary income, and also, because of higher marginal tax rates, can be sheltered to a greater extent by the charitable donation tax credit.

Only 2% of tax-filers with an income less than $5,000 made a charitable donation in 1990, whereas 35% of those in the $20,000-$29,999 range did so. In contrast, proportions of donors ranged from just over one-half in the $40,000-$49,999 income group to just under three-quarters of those with incomes of $70,000 or more.

Given that those with higher incomes tend to be more likely than others to donate to charity, it is not surprising that tax-filers with professional or dividend income are most likely to make charitable donations. Well over one-half (59%) of tax-filers with such income contributed to charity in 1990. The proportion was also relatively high (45%) for those with rental income. In contrast, only 19% of tax-filers receiving unemployment insurance made charitable donations.

Proportion of income given

By far, most tax-filers making charitable donations contribute less than 1% of their total income, regardless of age or income. However, the proportion contributing more than this generally increases with age and income level.

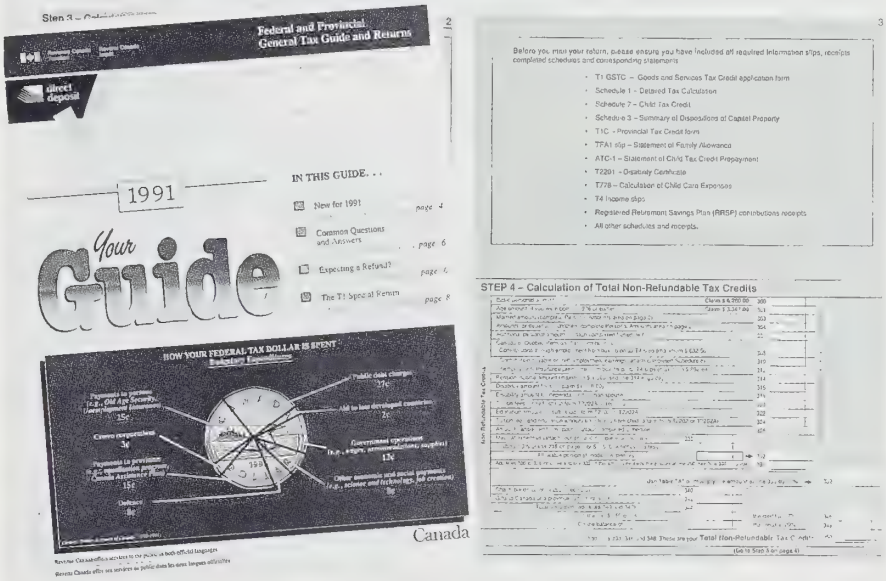
While only 1% of tax-filers under age 25 donated between 1% and 4.9% of their income in 1990, 7% of those aged 45-54 and 15% of seniors contributed that amount. Similarly, less than 1% of tax-filers under age 25 contributed at least 5% of their income to charity, compared with 3% of those aged 45-54 and 5% of seniors.

The proportion of tax-filers donating at least 1% of their income to charity increased through all income levels up to those with incomes of $70,000 or more. Less than 1% of tax-filers with incomes less than $5,000 claimed a charitable donation of more than 1% of their income in 1990. Among tax-filers in the $60,000-$69,999 income range, 11% gave between 1% and 4.9% of their income to charity, while 3% gave at least 5%. These proportions dropped considerably to 5% and 1%, respectively, for tax-filers with at least $70,000 income.

Conclusion

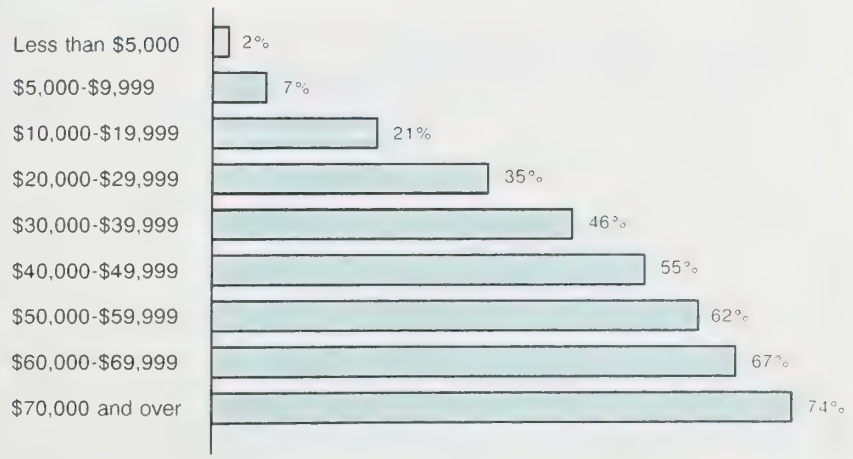
It is not known how much trends and patterns of making charitable donations are influenced by people's desire to contribute, their financial ability to do so, or the desire or need to take advantage of tax benefits derived from the deductions allowed. However, annual increases in total contributions have been decreasing and were only about 2% between 1989 and 1990. Continued economic uncertainty may further decrease the amount of charitable donation of Canada's tax-filers.

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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of tax-filers claiming charitable donations, by income groups, 1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division, unpublished data.

ABSENTEEISM AT WORK

by Ernest B. Akyeampong

Since 1977, the percentage of Canadian workers missing scheduled work time for personal reasons, excluding vacations, has increased as has the length of such absences. From 1977 to 1990, absences for personal reasons grew among men and women in almost all industries, occupations and provinces. However, most of the increase resulted from family-related leave taken by female workers. Growth in family-related absences is linked to both improvements in employment contract entitlement for personal leave, including maternity leave, and to the increasing number of mothers participating in the paid labour force.

Several factors contribute to workplace absences: the physical work environment; the degree of job stress; employer-employee relations; collective agreement provisions; maternity leave; work schedules; the adequacy and/or affordability of community facilities, such as child-care centres and public transportation; family circumstances, especially the presence of preschool children and other dependent family members; and the physical health of the worker, a factor closely related to age.

Workplace absences increasing

The frequency and duration of workplace absences have been increasing. During an average week in 1990, about 6.4% of all full-time paid workers were absent for personal reasons for all or part of the week, up from 5.8% in 1987 and 5.5% in 1977. The amount of time missed also increased, rising to 3.7% of all scheduled weekly work time in 1990, from 3.4% in 1987 and 3.0% in 1977. Estimated over the whole year, full-time workers were absent, on average, 9.4 days for personal reasons in 1990, up from 8.6 days in 1987 and 7.4 in 1977.

Family-related absences increased most

From 1977 to 1990, absences resulting from personal and family obligations more than doubled, while absences due to illness or disability increased slightly. Absences due to personal and family responsibilities reached 2.7 days in 1990, up from 2.2 days in 1987 and 1.1 in 1977. In 1990, 6.7 workdays were missed due to illness or disability, up from 6.4 days in 1987 and 6.3 in 1977.

Women's absences increase due to family obligations

Women have more absences than men for family-related reasons. This results, at least in part, from the traditional role women continue to hold within the home and family, despite advances into the paid labour force. Among full-time paid female workers, absences due to personal or family-related responsibilities almost tripled to 5.2 days in 1990 from 1.9 in 1977. In contrast, the number of days men have missed for similar reasons increased marginally to 0.9 days in 1990 from 0.7 in 1977. In contrast, the annual number of days men and women have been absent from work because of illness or disability has remained fairly constant since 1977, at about 6.5 and 7.0 days, respectively.

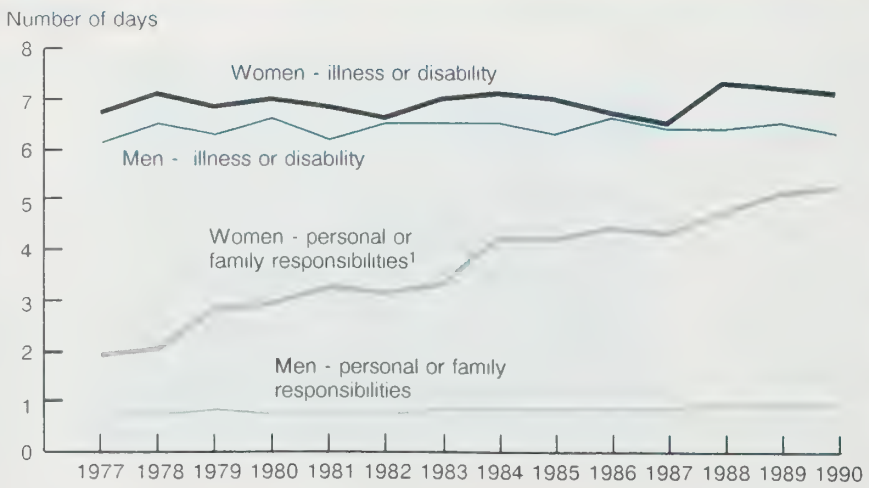
Family-related leave may enhance productivity by providing workers with the opportunity to achieve a better balance between paid work and family life,

Absence defined

An absence occurs when a full-time paid worker misses scheduled work time because of illness or disability or family or personal responsibilities including maternity leave. Absenteeism data from the Labour Force Survey include only full-time paid workers holding one job, about 8.7 million people in 1990. Excluded are part-time paid workers, self-employed workers, multiple-job holders and unpaid workers. Vacation time is also excluded from the statistics.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Days absent per worker and reason for absence, 1977-1990



[1] Includes maternity leave.
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

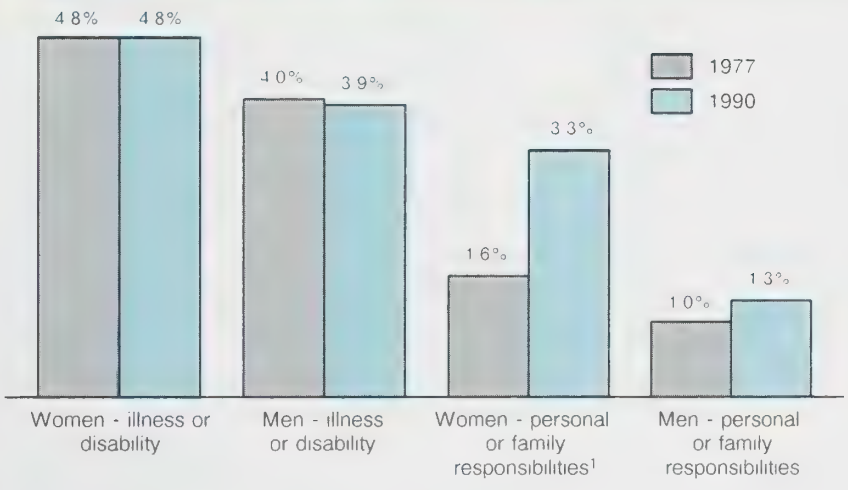
particularly for female employees shouldering child-rearing responsibilities. Some arrangements being adopted in the workplace, such as flex-time and work-at-home programs, may reduce the need for family-related absences during scheduled hours.[1]

Presence of children creates greater family obligations

The presence of children appears to exert a strong and rising upward pressure on absence levels among full-time paid female workers, but very little influence on their male counterparts. In 1990, women with children missed an average of 7.9 days of work due to family obligations. Among women with at least one preschool child, workdays missed for personal- or family-related reasons, including maternity leave, were much higher, averaging 25.1 days. In contrast, women without children were absent due to personal or family responsibilities an average of only 2.3 days in 1990.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

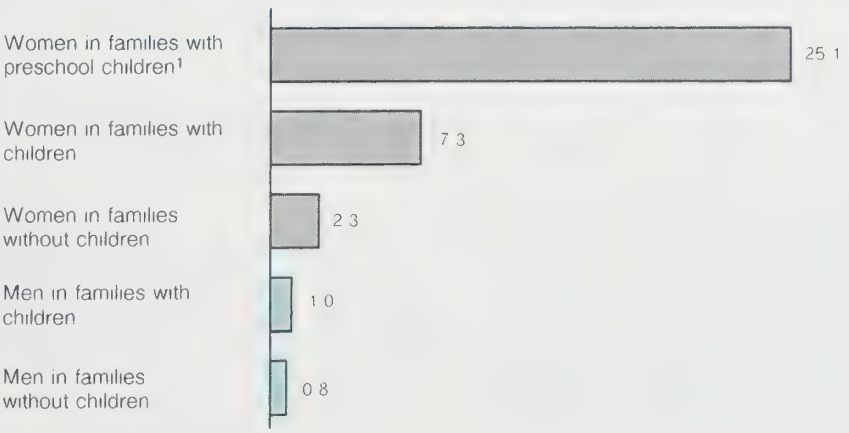
Full-time paid workers absent on average each week, 1977 and 1990



[1] Includes maternity leave.
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average number of days absent for personal and family reasons, by presence of children, 1990



[1] Includes maternity leave.
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

In contrast, absences for family-related reasons were not common among men, even those with children. In 1990, men with children missed an average of 1.0 day of work to meet personal and family obligations, while men without children lost 0.8 days.

Women's absences from work resulting from family-related responsibilities, especially the care of other family members, may be higher than men's because of the so called "second shift". Due to cultural traditions, many women carry a dual role as both a member of the paid labour force and the adult with primary responsibility for the care and maintenance of the home and family. Also, among husband-wife families, the paid worker with the lower wage, usually the wife, may assume more family obligations during working hours, especially if meeting such responsibilities results in a loss of wages.

Absences due to illness or disability increase with age

Illnesses or disabilities are responsible for higher levels of workplace absenteeism among older workers. In all age groups, however, the proportion of workers absent for these reasons during an average week in 1990 was higher than in 1987, as were the number of days lost.

In 1990, about 6% of workers aged 55 and over reported an absence each week due to illness or disability, compared with only 3.4% of workers aged 15-19. Also, workers aged 55 and over missed more work time due to illness or disability than did young workers. In 1990, those aged 55 and over were absent due to illness or disability an average of 12.0 days per year, while workers aged 15-19 lost only 4.2 days.

Absenteeism in most industries up

Between 1987 and 1990, the frequency and duration of workplace absences increased among full-time paid workers in every major industry, except those in transportation, communication and other utilities where the levels remained unchanged. Differences by industry in absences and the reasons for those absences are related to both the nature of the jobs and the gender composition of the labour force within these industries.

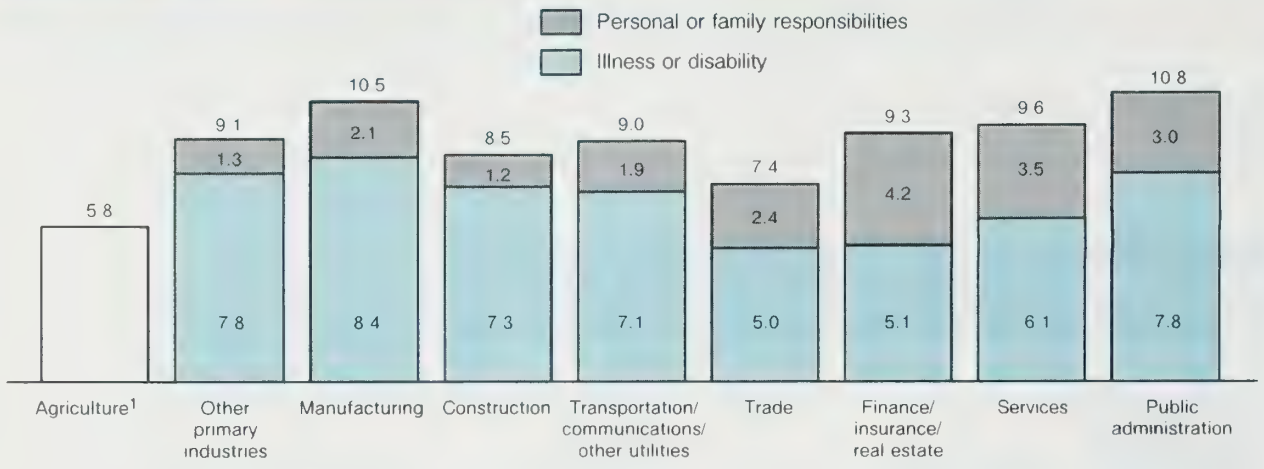
Illness or disability higher in goods-producing sector

While overall absenteeism in 1990 was

[1] Data on various work arrangements are available from the Statistics Canada Survey of Work Arrangements, 1991.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average number of days absent per worker, by industry and reason for absence, 1990



[1] Reason for absence unavailable.
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

similar in the goods-producing and service industries, absences due to illness or disability were much higher among workers in the more hazardous and physically demanding goods-producing industries. Absences due to illness or disability accounted for 82% (8.0 days per worker) of the total time missed by workers in the goods-producing sector in 1990, compared with about 67% (6.1 days per worker) of absences in the service sector. In contrast, service-sector workers were absent an average of 3.1 days for family-related reasons in 1990, compared with an average of 1.9 days in the goods-producing sector.

Absenteeism high in public administration and manufacturing

Among broad industry groups, workplace absences were highest in public administration followed closely by manufacturing. During an average week in 1990, 8% of public servants and 7% of manufacturing employees were absent from work for all or part of the week. As a result, these workers missed an average of almost 11.0 days in 1990. In contrast, the lowest incidence of worker absenteeism occurred in agriculture. Only 4.2% of agricultural workers were absent during an average week in 1990 and missed an average of 5.8 days that year. The seasonal nature of agricultural work and the limited periods in the year during which paid workers are employed full-time in agriculture contributed to these low results.

Highest rates in health and social services

At a more detailed industry level, the highest average number of days absent in 1990 occurred in health and social services (14.3), and in banks and other financial institutions (11.7). In 1990, average days absent due to family obligations in these industries, which have a high representation of women, were double the overall average. Absences for this reason averaged 5.3 days per worker in the health and social services field and 5.9 days per worker in banks and other financial institutions. Also, in health and social services industries, stresses associated with the jobs, extended hours, shift work and high vulnerability to infectious illnesses, such as colds may also contribute to high absenteeism rates.

Variations by occupation

Absence levels were lower among workers with "white-collar" occupations than among those with "blue-collar" occupations. In 1990, about 6.3% of white-collar workers were absent for all or part of a typical week, 8.8 days per year, compared with 6.7% of blue-collar workers who were absent 10.6 days per year. Days lost as a result of illness or disability were more common among blue-collar workers (85% of all absences) than among white-collar workers (63% of all absences).

Among white-collar workers, those in sales (6.9 days) and managers and professionals (7.9 days) missed the fewest number of days in 1990, whereas clerical workers missed the most (10.4 days). Among blue-collar workers, those in primary occupations missed the fewest days (7.7 days), whereas workers in processing, machining and fabricating missed the most (11.6 days).

While workers in both groups were absent more often in 1990 than in 1987, the gap between the two groups narrowed. This occurred because during this period, family related absences increased among white-collar workers.

Provincial variations

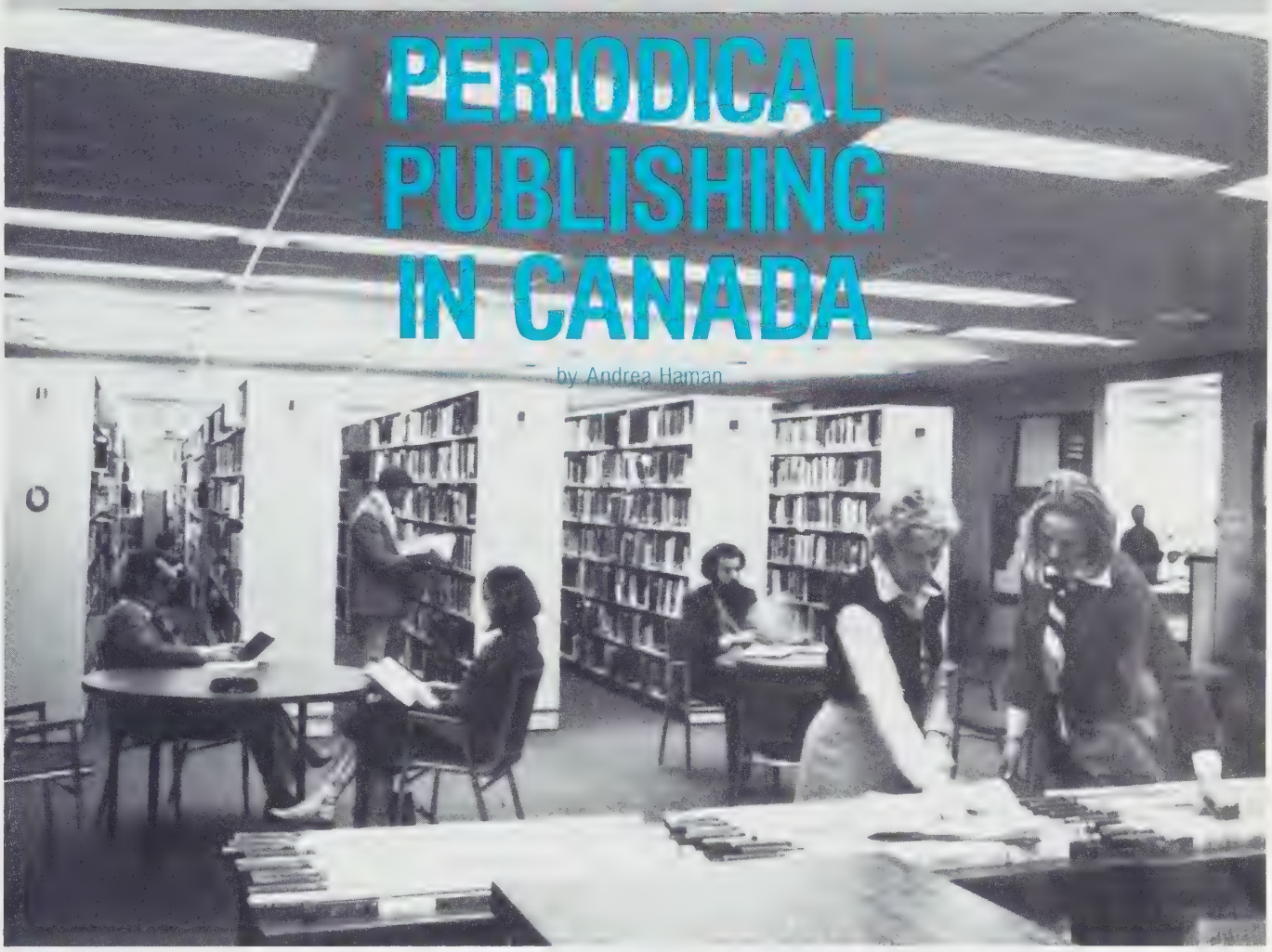
Absence levels vary by province. In part, this is due to differences in industrial and occupational mix. However, between 1987 and 1990, the tendency to miss work, as well as the amount of time missed, increased in all provinces except British Columbia.

Full-time workers in Manitoba exhibited the highest incidence of absenteeism in 1990, with 7.6% missing some time each week. In contrast, workers in the predominantly agricultural province of Saskatchewan had the lowest rate, with 5.8% absent. Quebec workers missed the most work days, 10.5 days in 1990, while workers in Alberta and Saskatchewan missed the fewest, 7.3 days and 8.0 days, respectively.

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PERIODICAL PUBLISHING IN CANADA

by Andrea Haman



Canada's periodical industry has experienced a substantial growth in circulation and increased revenues during the last few years. However, expenses increased at about the same rate and profits margins have fallen. Yet, until recently, more publishers entered the industry each year, and, in spite of sometimes discouraging prospects, published an increasing number of periodicals.

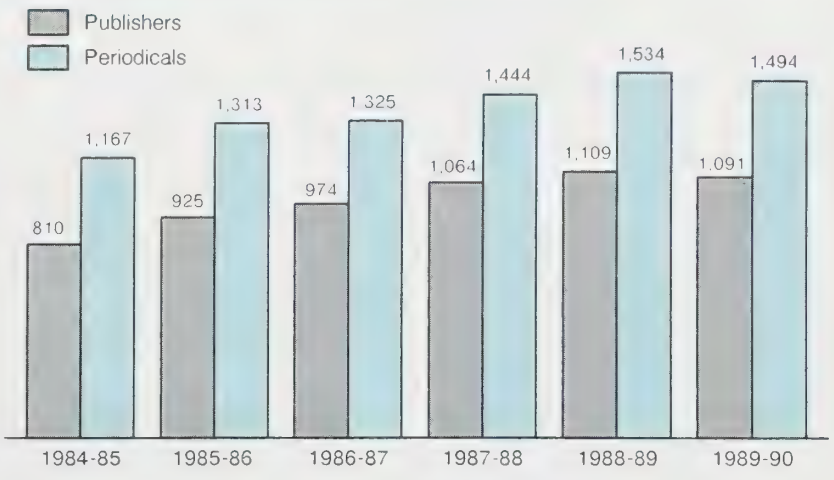
More publishers

The Canadian periodical publishing industry attracted new enterprises during the last half of the 1980s, and only in 1989-90 did the growth in new entrants level off. By 1989-90, reporting publishers numbered 1,091, compared with 1,109 the previous year and 810 in 1984-85. Most publishers are responsible for only one periodical, with only 13% publishing more than one in 1989-90.

In 1989-90, three-quarters of publishers were located in Ontario (46%) and

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Reported publishers and periodicals, 1984-85 to 1989-90



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-203.

Quebec (28%), while the remainder were in the Prairie provinces (12%), British Columbia and the Northwest Territories (9%) and the Atlantic provinces (5%). The location of Canadian periodical publishers has changed little in recent years, except for an increase in Ontario and a decline in Quebec. In 1984-85, 41% of Canada's periodical publishers were in Ontario and 34% in Quebec.

Periodicals more numerous

Recent changes in the number of publishers were accompanied by a similar shift in the number of periodicals being published. In 1989-90, 1,494 periodicals were published, down from 1,534 in 1988-89, but up from 1,167 in 1984-85. Of the total number of individual periodicals in 1989-90, 30% were classified as special interest, 24% as business or trade, 16% as general interest and 15% as scholarly. Religious and farm periodicals accounted for the remainder.

Periodicals are also classified by the amount of revenues. Most periodicals are small, with revenues of less than $100,000. However, their proportion declined to 45% in 1989-90 from 52% in 1984-85. In contrast, an increasing proportion of periodicals were classified as large (revenues of over $500,000) in 1989-90 (24%) than in 1984-85 (16%). The proportion of medium-size periodicals (revenues between $100,000 and $499,999) has remained about the same since 1984-85.

English or French

English was the principal language of 60% of Canadian periodicals in 1989-90, while 22% were written in French. Bilingual periodicals (English and French) comprised 16% and those in languages other than English and French accounted for the remaining 3%. This distribution by language changed only slightly from that in earlier years, with the largest change being a three percentage point increase in bilingual periodicals.

What's inside?

Most editorial content in Canadian periodicals relates to human sciences (communication, law, education, history, philosophy, health, sociology or economics), news and leisure, and science and technology, with the remainder split between business and arts and culture.

Canadian periodicals continue to promote the country's writers and artists. However, a definite shift away from in-house services took place during the last half of the 1980s. In 1989-90, 51% of articles in a typical issue were produced in-house, while 42% were purchased from Canadian authors and 7% from foreign authors. In contrast, 74% of articles had been produced in-house in 1984-85. In 1989-90, 44% of illustrations and photographs were done in-house. The majority (50%) were purchased from Canadian freelancers outside the organization, and 6% from foreign artists. In 1984-85, 67% of illustration and photography had been done in-house.

Circulation

Circulation levels per issue also increased, amounting to 39.5 million in 1989-90, up from 33.5 million in 1984-85. Just over one-half (56%) of these copies were single copy sales or subscriptions (classified as paid circulation) in 1989-90, and the remaining 44% were distributed free of charge (non-paid circulation). This is a slight shift from 1985-86, when paid (51%) and free (49%) circulation figures were almost equal.

General interest periodicals — written to inform and entertain the reader and aimed at a global market or one large portion of it — had the largest circulation per issue between 1984-85 and 1989-90. However over the period, a shift from general interest to more specialized periodicals occurred. In 1989-90, general interest periodicals made up almost one-half (49%) of per issue circulation, while those classified as special interest accounted for another 25%. The remainder were periodicals classified as business or trade (13%), religious (8%), farm (3%) and scholarly (2%). Scholarly periodicals are restricted to academic subjects and mainly published by universities, research institutes and learned societies to disseminate research results or knowledge in a specific field.

Revenue

With the increase in periodicals and per issue circulation, total revenue of Canadian periodicals rose during the last half of the 1980s. In 1989-90, total revenue was estimated at $903 million, a 43% increase from the 1984-85 figure of $607 million.

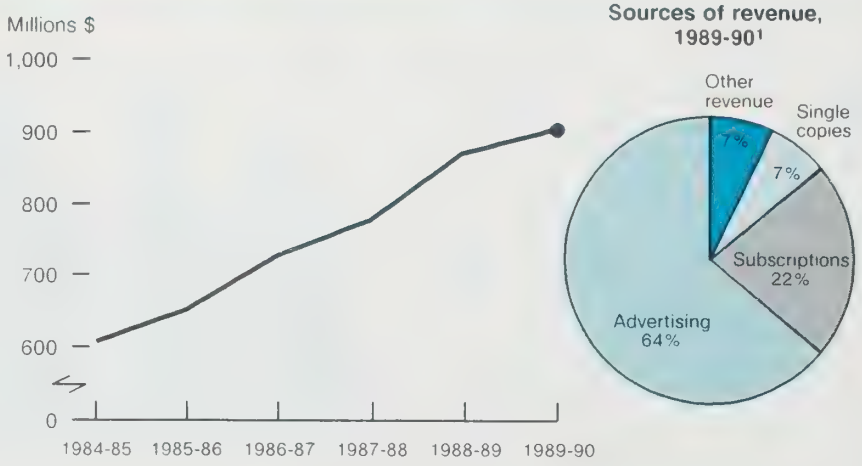
The sources of revenue varied little during the last half of the 1980s, with advertising typically accounting for almost two-thirds of reported revenue. In 1989-90, sales of advertisements accounted for 64% of estimated total revenue. Subscriptions added another 22% and single-copy sales 7%. Other sources, including sales of back issues, grants, donations, and membership dues, accounted for the remaining 7% of total revenue.

Expenses

Although the industry enjoyed an increase in revenue, it was matched by a 44% increase in expenses between 1984-85 and 1989-90. Production and printing costs were highest, accounting for 37% of the total in 1989-90. These were followed by salaries, wages and fees (20%), administration and general costs (12%),

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Revenue of periodicals, 1984-85 to 1989-90[1]



[1] Includes estimates for periodicals that did not report.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-203.



promotion and marketing (10%), advertising sales' costs (6%), and editorial and design, and distribution postage (5% each). The remaining costs were for processing and invoicing, other distribution expenses and other non-specified items.

Profits

Overall profit margins — profit before taxes as a percentage of total revenue — in the Canadian periodical industry have dropped during the last half of the 1980s, a period of economic turbulence.

The overall profit margin (profit before taxes as a percentage of total revenue) had dropped to 4% by 1989-90, from 6% in 1984-85. While the profit margin of English periodicals equalled the industry average in 1989-90, French periodicals had a profit margin of 7%. For those written in both official languages, the profit margin was 1%, whereas those written in another language suffered a loss of 1%.

Profit margins also vary depending on the editorial content of the periodical. For example, the highest profit margin was for business or trade, and religious periodicals, at 6% each. General interest (which had the highest circulation) and farm periodicals followed, at 5% and 4%, respectively. The profit margin for special interest consumer periodicals was negligible and was -2% for scholarly periodicals.

Differences in profit margins vary to an even larger extent by size of the periodical. In 1989-90, small periodicals had a negative profit margin of 23%. The loss for medium periodicals was much smaller, at 1%, while large periodicals realized a profit margin of 6%.

Periodicals defined

A periodical is a printed communications medium issued regularly more than once a year, but not more than once a week. To be classified as a periodical, it must have a name and some form of chronology on the cover, have no more than 70% advertising content, be available to the public and be formed in a distinct package. Catalogues, directories, newsletters, daily and weekly newspapers and government publications are excluded from this definition, as are publications printed in Canada but published outside the country.

Andrea Haman *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

CANADIANS ON THE MOVE

by Janet Che-Alford



Canadians are very mobile, with most Canadians having changed residence at least once in the last 10 years. According to the General Social Survey (GSS), one-half of Canadian adults moved during the last 5 years and two-thirds in the last 10 years. In 1989, 3.6 million people aged 15 and over (18% of adults) moved. In fact, just 5% of adults have always lived at the same address.

International comparison

By international standards, the annual proportion of movers in Canada matches that in the United States (18%). Canadians are much more likely to move than are people from Great Britain (10%) or Ireland (6%), but somewhat less likely to move than New Zealanders (19%).[1]

Regional differences

Residential moves are not uniform across the country. Residents of Alberta and British Columbia are the most mobile, whereas those in Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland are the least likely to move. In 1989, one-fifth of adults in Alberta and British Columbia changed residences, compared with 9% of people in Prince Edward Island and 13% in Newfoundland. The proportions of movers in the remaining provinces were slightly below the national average of 18%. Although some of these movers may have been residents of another province or country before their move in 1989, the majority of moves were within the province, judging from the distance moved.

Reasons for moving[2]

Most Canadians change residences for housing-or work-related reasons. In 1989, Canadians' number one motivation for moving was to have to a larger home (17% of all moves). Other housing-related reasons for moving included purchasing a home (13%), moving to a better neighbourhood (13%), moving to a less expensive home (5%), moving to a smaller home (2%) and better accommodations (1%).

The second main reason for residential mobility was related to employment (16% of all movers in 1989). Such moves could be attributable to one's own employment (12%) or to the employment of a family member (4%). Other reasons given for moving included changes in marital status (10%), desire for independence, i.e. to establish one's own household (7%), need to be closer to family (5%) and involuntary moves because previous accommodations were no longer available (3%).

Mobility status of population aged 15 and over, 1990

	000s	%
Total population aged 15 and over	20,526	100
Always lived in same residence	1,050	5
Total movers	19,103	93
Moved in 1989	3,624	18
Moved since January 1985	10,253	50
Moved since January 1980	13,121	64
Not stated	373	2

Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey, special tabulation.

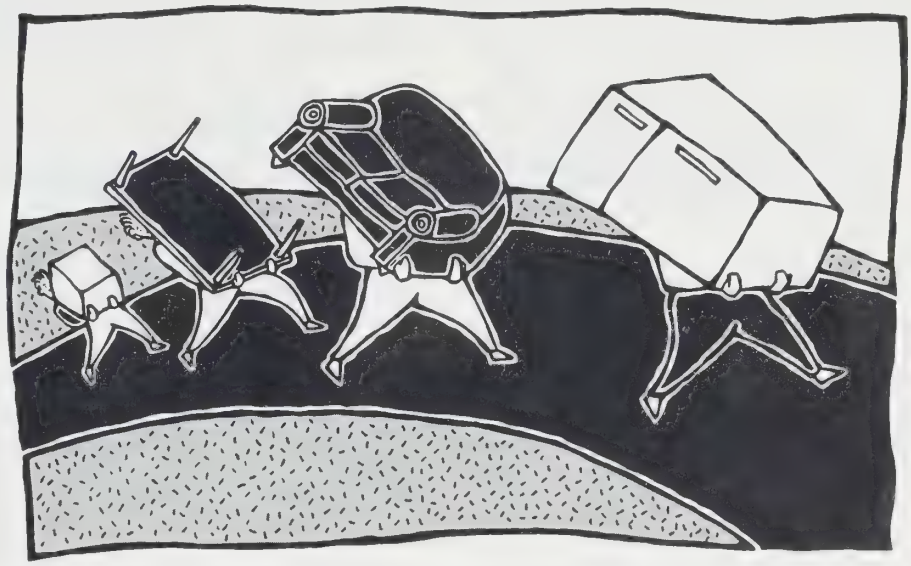
Age and gender of movers

Overall, men and women are equally likely to move. In 1989, 18% of both men and women changed their address. Nonetheless, reasons for moving differed by gender. For instance, 16% of men and 9% of women who moved did so because of their job. On the other hand, 7% of women and 1% of men who moved did so because of a family member's employment.

A slightly higher proportion of men (6%) than women (4%) who moved did so because they wanted to be closer to their family. Also, men tended to be more likely than women to move because of the purchase of a home: 14% of men, compared with 11% of women in 1989. On the other hand, about 7% of women who moved did so because of marriage, while the proportion for men was 5%.

Mobility rates and the reasons for moving tend to be associated with different stages in the life cycle. The most mobile Canadians are those aged 15-34, 28% of whom moved in 1989. The percentage of movers declined at successively older ages to about 16% of those aged 35-44, 8% of those aged 45-54 and 6% of those aged 55 and over. In 1989, the mobility rate of young adults aged 15-24, at 29%, was considerably above that of all Canadians.

Reasons for moving varied by age. For instance, among those aged 15-24, the primary reasons for moving cited in 1989 were to attend school (14%) and to change to a larger home (14%). People aged 25-34 were buying homes (19%) and seeking larger homes (18%). As well, they were the most likely to move for a job (38%), compared with 30% of people aged 15-24 and 18% of those aged 35-44. Among those aged 65 and over, home-buying and job concerns had receded. These people moved to a better neighbourhood (22%), to be close to family (17%), for health reasons (16%) and to obtain smaller homes (13%).



Tenure status

In 1990, slightly more than 14 million Canadians aged 15 and over lived in owner-occupied dwellings and almost 6 million lived in rental units, according to GSS estimates. The propensity to move was considerably higher among renters than owners, with three times as many renters (33%) as owners (12%) having moved in 1989.

Reasons for this are varied. Since homeowners have placed a greater financial investment in their dwelling, they cannot move as readily as renters. While renters can move at the end of their lease or by giving due notice, most homeowners must wait for their house to be sold to recapture the equity they have invested in their dwelling. On the other hand, renters lack the security of tenure enjoyed by homeowners. Rent increases, or other landlord imposed changes, may result in more moves for tenants than homeowners.

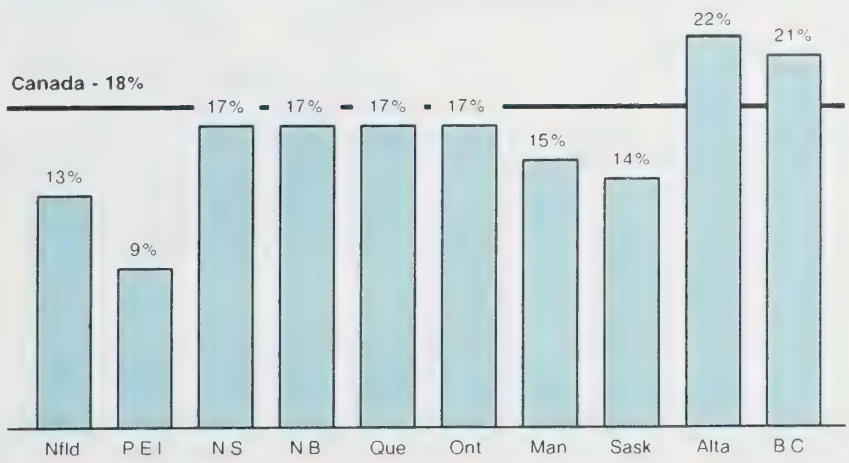
Education

Among those who moved in 1989, the likelihood of moving increased with educational attainment. University-educated people were almost three times more likely than those with less than a Grade 9 education to move (23% versus 8%). The probability of moving increased from 15% for those with some high school to 18% for those with a secondary school certificate and to 19% for those with post-secondary non-university education.

The upward effect of educational attainment on residential moves occurs regardless of tenure status, although the trend is more accentuated among renters than owners. While 15% of university-educated homeowners moved in 1989, only 4% of those with less than a Grade 9 education did so. Similarly, 41% of university-educated renters moved in 1989, compared with 17% of those with less than a Grade 9 education.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadian movers aged 15 and over, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey, special tabulation.

[1] American Demographics, June 1991, p.4.

[2] A small proportion of respondents gave more than one reason for moving.

Moving time

Not surprisingly, moving is most likely to occur when weather is most favourable. In 1989, more than one-half of all moves took place during the months of June (11%), July (14%), August (9%), September (13%) and October (10%). Moving dropped off in November (8%) and December (9%) reaching the lowest point from January to April (4% to 5%). Moving increased again in May (7%), leading into the peak moving cycle of summer.

Education levels of respondents aged 15 and over, 1990

Education level and tenure	Total population	Moved in 1989	
	000s	000s	%
Owners	**14,232**	**1,642**	**12**
Less than Grade 9[1]	1,213	44	4
Grades 9-13	3,605	320	9
Secondary certificate	2,043	256	13
Post-secondary non-university	4,370	558	13
Some university and university degree	2,920	449	15
Renters	**5,965**	**1,959**	**33**
Less than Grade 9[1]	485	84	17
Grades 9-13	1,517	442	29
Secondary Certificate	809	249	31
Post-secondary non-university	1,853	650	35
Some university and university degree	1,267	524	41

[1] Includes no schooling.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey, special tabulation.

Reasons for move in 1989, by selected distance

Reasons for move (Top five)	Movers of all distance		Movers of 50 km or less		Movers of 1,000 km or more	
	% of total	Rank order	% of total	Rank order	% of total	Rank order
To move to a larger home	17	1	22	1	-	-
To move to a better neighbourhood	13	2	14	3	12	4
To purchase a home	13	3	16	2	1	-
One's work	12	4	-	-	30	1
To establish one's own household	7	5	9	4	1	-
Marriage	6	-	7	5	4	-
Other family member's work	-	-	-	-	14	2
To be closer to family	-	-	-	-	14	3
To attend school	-	-	-	-	11	5

- Not one of the top five reasons.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey, special tabulation.

Moving distance

Canadians may be a very mobile people, but most do not move far. In 1989, 54% of moves were within 10 km (a 10-minute drive from the starting point) and another 20% were between 10 km and 50 km (30 minutes or less). Just 12% of movers went 1,000 km or more.

The top reasons for moving varied by distance moved. For example, fully 30% of moves at a distance of 1,000 km or more were made because of the respondent's own employment and 14% because of the job of a family member or the need to be closer to family. In contrast, short distance moves were more housing-related: 22% of these people moved to a larger home and 16% bought a home.

Short occupancy lengths

The high annual mobility rate of Canadians translates into relatively short lengths of occupancy. In 1990, more than one-third of adults (38%) had lived in their current residence for three years or less. In fact, 19% had lived in their home for one year or less. People with long-term residency are a minority, with just 35% of adults living in the same home for 10 or more years and another 5% who had never moved.



Janet Che-Alford *is a senior analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,240.3	26,610.4	27,000.4[pr]
Annual growth (%)	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5[pr]
Immigration[1]	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,527	219,480[p]
Emigration[1]	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	39,649	39,233[pp]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	15.3	15.2[p]
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.1	7.0[p]
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	2.9	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	1,039	990	915	872	789	776	841	1,046
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572	12,340
- goods sector (000s)	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626	3,423
- services sector (000s)	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946	8,917
Total unemployment (000s)	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109	1,417
Unemployment rate (%)	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.3
Part-time employment (%)	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4	16.4
Women's participation rate (%)	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4	58.2
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	34.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	46,069	*
% of families with low income (1986 Base)	15.6	14.3	13.6	13.1	12.2	11.1	12.1	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	67.6	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,083.9	5,149.3[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.9	832.3	856.3	887.0[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,672	283.0[p]
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.5	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	*	*
- women	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	*	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	*	*
- women	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	*	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.8	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	714	749	808	856	898	948	1,013	*
- property	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,844	*
- homicide	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.8[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1990 $000,000)	151,003.3	155,990.6	157,737.2	160,670.7	164,293.2	170,125.0	175,640.0	*
- as a % of total expenditures	55.6	55.8	56.4	56.1	56.2	56.2	56.7	*
- as a % of GDP	26.2	26.2	26.1	25.5	24.7	25.0	26.2	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+4.7	+2.5	+0.5	−1.5
Annual inflation rate (%)	4.4	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6
Urban housing starts	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March. [pr] Updated postcensal estimates [pp] Preliminary postcensal estimates.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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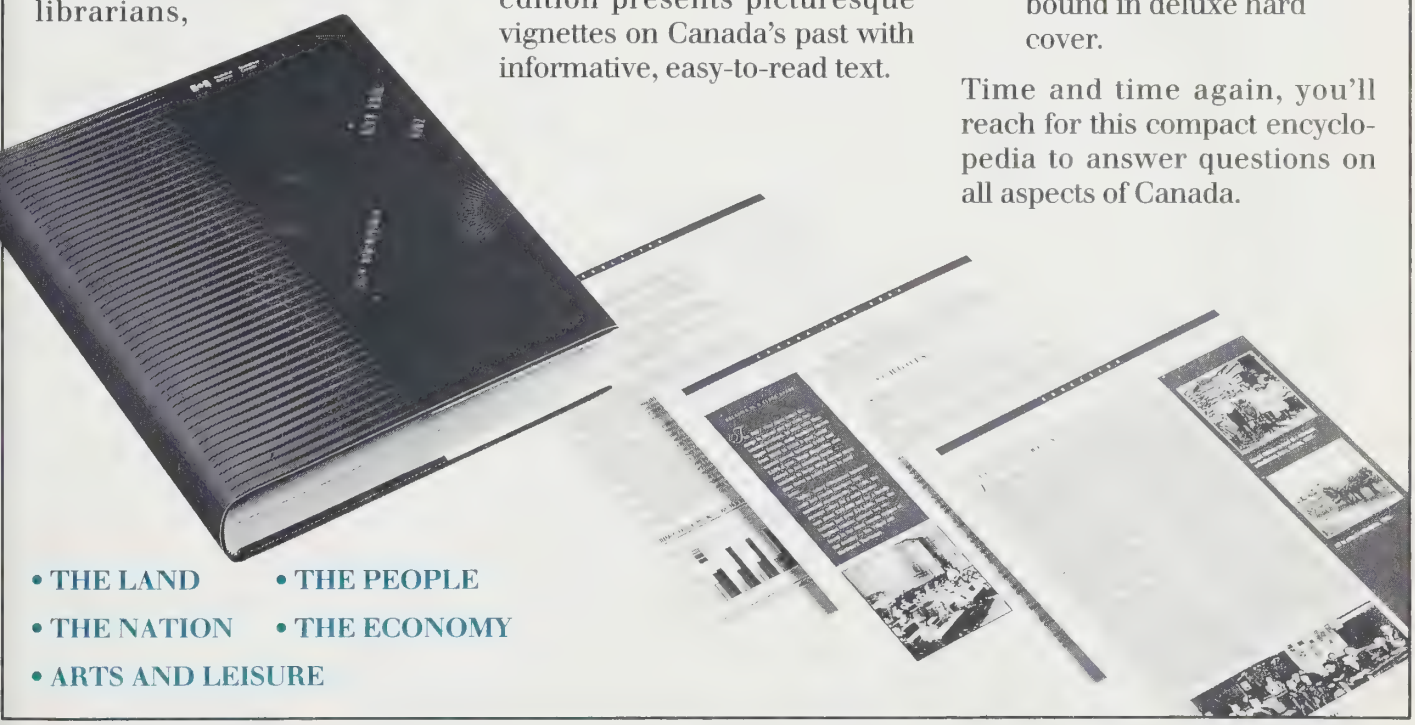
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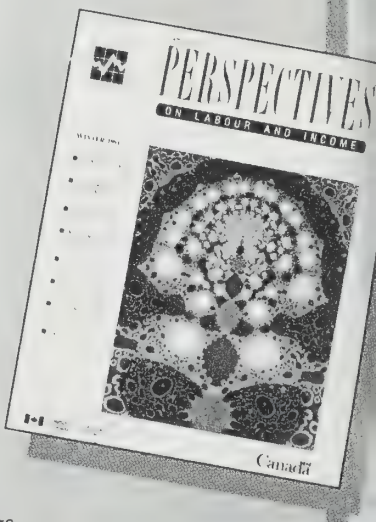


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About the Artist:

Marc-Aurèle de Foy Suzor-Côté (1869-1937) was born at Arthabaska, Quebec; his mother was Cécile de Foy-Suzor, his father Théophile Côté. He began by helping the painter Maxime Rousseau to make church decorations at Arthabaska. He went to Paris in 1890 and studied at the École des Beaux-Arts and the Julian and Colarossi academies, returning to Canada in 1893. He was again in France in the nineties, returning to open a studio in Montreal in 1908; and to spend the summers painting at Arthabaska. A.R.C.A. in 1911, R.C.A. in 1914. He died at Daytona Beach, Florida, where he had gone for his health. He was a painter of landscape and figures, and sculptor.



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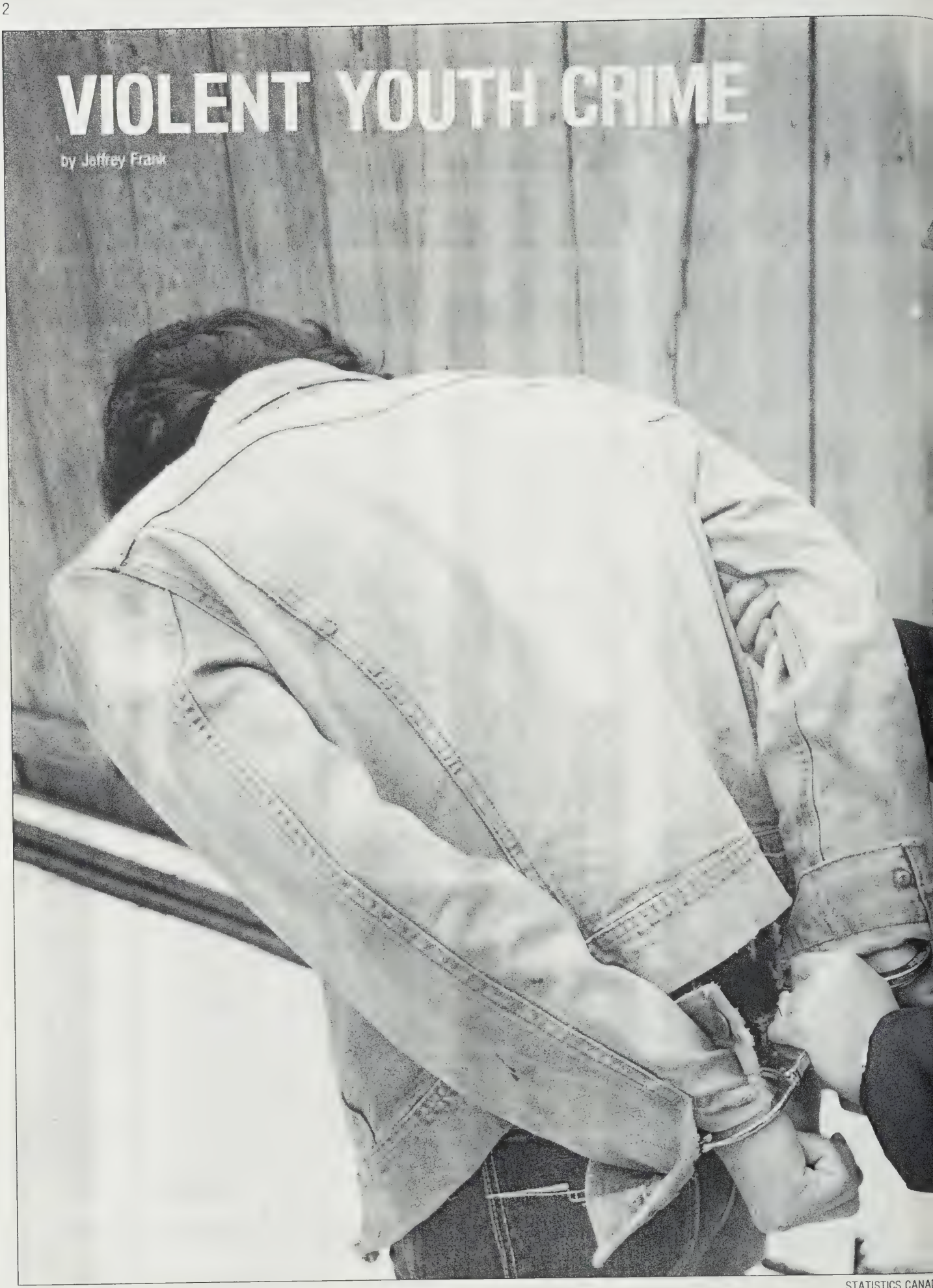
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VIOLENT YOUTH CRIME

by Jeffrey Frank





Violent youth crime in Canada appears to have increased in recent years. While violent offences still account for a small proportion of all youth crime, increasing numbers of young people are being charged and tried for violent crimes. It is unclear, however, to what extent these increases stem from actual changes in the behaviour patterns of young people, from heightened sensitivity to youth violence, or from changes in law enforcement practices and in the administration of youth justice.

Juvenile justice legislation

The *Young Offenders Act* (YOA) came into effect in 1984 and replaced the *Juvenile Delinquents Act*, which dated back to 1908.

The *Juvenile Delinquents Act* was based on a child welfare approach to youth crime. The function of the court was not so much to determine innocence or guilt, as to prescribe treatment or care in the best interest of the child.

The YOA attempts to balance the child welfare approach with both society's demands for protection from crime and the need to protect young people's legal rights. As a result, youth courts are now designed primarily to ascertain innocence or guilt. Youth appearing in court are guaranteed all the legal rights of the adult court system. Nonetheless, youth courts still acknowledge that young people have special needs and should be held accountable in a manner appropriate to their age and maturity.

The three year maximum sentence under the YOA probably best illustrates this limited accountability approach. While two years is the normal maximum sentence allowed in youth courts, a young offender can be given three years for a combination of offences or for murder. A 1992 amendment to the YOA raised the maximum sentence for convicted murderers to five years. The amendment also limited sentence lengths for youth transferred and convicted of murder in adult court.

Youth court judges can also transfer exceptionally serious cases to adult court. At the same time, the YOA provides for Alternative Measures to the formal court process. These measures may include community service, special education programs, counselling or restitution agreements.

The YOA includes a uniform age provision which was fully implemented in 1985. The population covered by the YOA now includes youth aged 12-17 (up to the 18th birthday). Children under 12 are dealt with according to provincial child welfare legislation.

Categorization of offences

Violent offences include murder, manslaughter, attempted murder, sexual and non-sexual assault and robbery. In addition, the Youth Court Survey categorizes offences related to the use or possession of weapons, firearms or explosives as violent. Other violent offences such as infanticide, kidnapping, extortion and criminal negligence account for a very small proportion of violent youth crime.

Non-violent offence categories include:

- Property (mostly theft under $1,000);
- "Other" Criminal Code (offences against the administration of justice including bail violations and escapes);
- Drugs (offences under the federal *Food and Drug and Narcotics Control Acts* such as possession);
- *Young Offenders Act* (failure to comply with a youth court disposition).

Crime statistics

Official statistics on crime in Canada are obtained from the Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) system which counts all criminal incidents recorded by the police. However, many violent crimes are not reported. The General Social Survey, for example, estimated that in 1987, only 31% of violent crimes were reported to the police. Victims tend not to report violent incidents because they feel the offence is minor, the police likely cannot do anything about it, reporting would be inconvenient, or the offence is a personal matter and of no concern to the police. Fear of revenge from the offender and a concern with the attitudes of criminal justice workers toward sexual assault are further reasons why victims of this type of crime often do not involve the police. In addition, many crimes are handled informally and are never actually recorded. The official crime count is also understated to some degree because in incidents involving more than one offence, only the "most serious offence" is recorded.

Youth court survey

The Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics conducts the Youth Court Survey (YCS). The YCS is intended to be a census of *Criminal Code* and other federal statute charges heard in youth courts in participating provinces and territories. YCS data for Ontario are only partially available beginning in fiscal year 1990-91. Therefore, national totals and comparisons over time do not include Ontario data.

In this article, the unit of analysis for youth court data is the case. A case is defined as one or more charges (first presented in court on the same date) against a youth. A young person, therefore, may appear in more than one case in a given year.

Cases are categorized according to the most serious charge at the beginning of the youth court process (the "principal" charge). As a result, a case involving charges of aggravated assault, minor assault and break and enter would be classified as an aggravated assault case. Similarly, reported decisions (outcomes) and dispositions (sentences) are the most serious ones associated with the principal charge. Therefore, less serious charges, decisions and dispositions are under-reported in multiple charge cases.

Youth charged

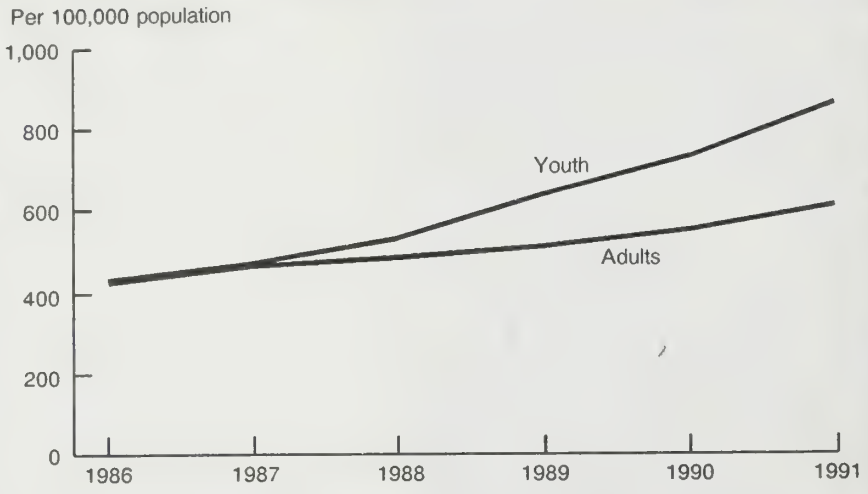
In 1991, 22% of the 679,000 federal statute charges laid were against youth. Of the more than 146,000 charges against young people, 13% were violence-related. These 18,800 violent offence charges marked a 102% increase from 9,300 in 1986. Over this period, the size of the youth population decreased 1.8% to 2.2 million. For every 100,000 youth aged 12-17, 855 violent offence charges were laid in 1991, up 106% from 415 in 1986.

In comparison, the rate of adult (18 and over) charges for violent offences was about the same as for youth in 1986 but has since risen more slowly than the rate for youth. In 1991, 609 charges were laid for every 100,000 adults, up 45% from 419 in 1986.

Minor assaults accounted for about half of all violent offence charges against youth in 1991. In fact, the overall increase in violent charges was largely due to minor assaults. Police laid 406 minor assault

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

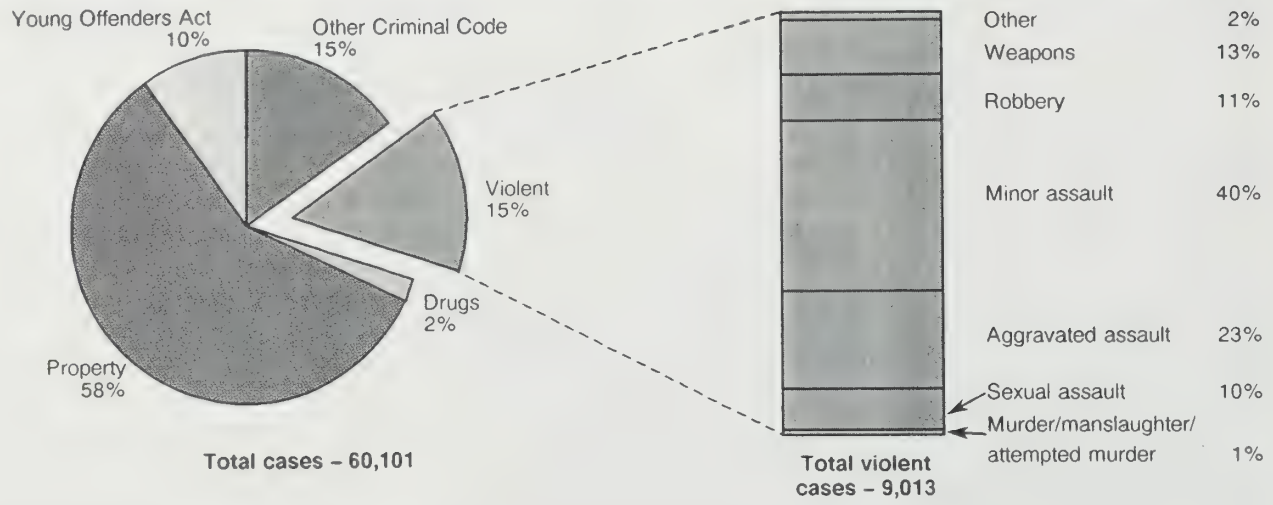
Violent offence charges: youth and adults, 1986-1991



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, 1986-1991.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Youth court cases[1], by type of offence, 1990-91



[1] Data exclude Ontario.
Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Youth Court Survey, 1990-91.

charges for every 100,000 youth in 1991, up 127% from 179 in 1986.

Aggravated assault, a far more serious offence, accounted for one of every four violent charges. Police laid 226 aggravated assault charges for every 100,000 youth in 1991, up 87% from 121 in 1986. Charge rates for other violent offences in 1991 were much lower: 123 robbery charges for every 100,000 youth and 87 sexual assault charges. The most serious offences (murder, manslaughter and attempted murder) accounted for 5 charges for every 100,000 youth (0.6% of violent charges against youth).

Youth court cases

In 1990-91, youth courts heard over 60,000 cases (excluding Ontario). Of these, about 9,000 (15%) had a violent offence as the principal charge. The majority of cases involved property offences (58%). Other categories included "Other" *Criminal Code* offences (15%), YOA offences (9%), and drug-related offences (2%).

The number of violence-related cases heard in youth courts increased to 414 for every 100,000 youth in 1990-91, up 40% from 296 in 1986-87. The rate of "Other" *Criminal Code* offence cases also increased

Youth court murder cases

Murder is considered to be the most serious crime in society. Although murder constitutes an extremely small proportion of all youth court cases (0.04%), this most serious violent youth crime attracts a great deal of media and public attention.

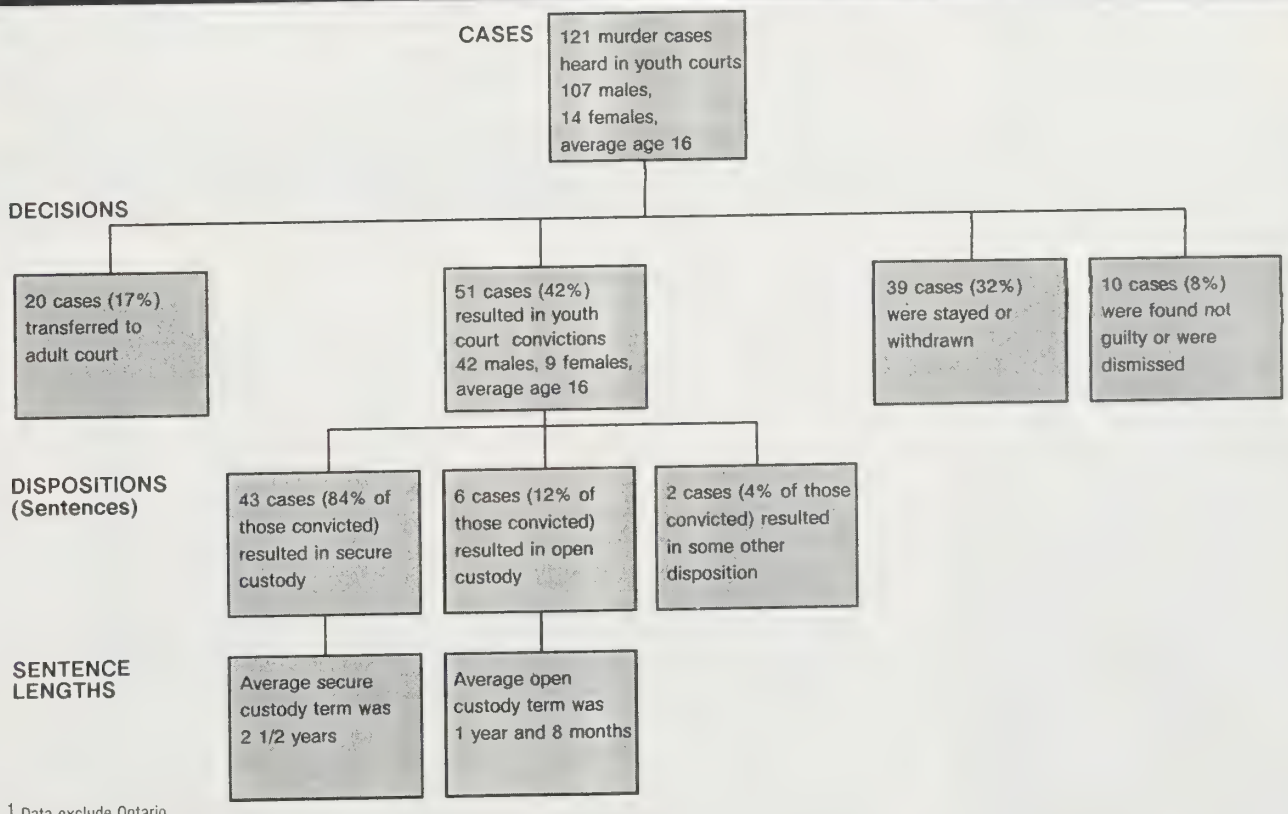
Over the five-year period between 1986-87 and 1990-91, youth courts (excluding Ontario) heard 121 murder cases. Twenty of these cases (17%) were transferred to adult courts, while an additional 51 cases (42%) resulted in youth court convictions. Of the murder cases convicted in youth court, 43 (84%) resulted in secure custody and another 6 (12%) resulted in open custody as the most serious disposition. Secure custody terms for murder averaged 2 1/2 years while the average open custody term was 1 year and 8 months.

Murder, manslaughter and attempted murder cases heard in youth courts, 1986-87 to 1990-91

	Murder	Manslaughter	Attempted Murder
1986-87	17	4	53
1987-88	30	4	39
1988-89	20	7	41
1989-90	22	15	28
1990-91	32	12	42

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Youth Court Survey, 1986-87 to 1990-91.

MURDER CASES HEARD IN YOUTH COURTS[1], 1986-87 TO 1990-91



[1] Data exclude Ontario.
Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Youth Court Survey, 1986-87 to 1990-91.

40%. In contrast, the rate of property offence cases fell slightly in 1987-88 and 1988-89 before returning to 1986-87 levels.

The rate of drug offence cases decreased steadily to 104 for every 100,000 youth in 1990-91, down 35% from 159 in 1986-87. This trend is partially explained by decreased drug use among young Canadians (see *Young Drinkers and Smokers* in this issue). Also, police have increasingly concentrated on apprehending drug traffickers rather than users.

Violence-related court case counts do not directly correspond with police charge counts for a number of reasons. For example, Crown counsel may exercise discretion in deciding whether to proceed with cases. Also, due to practices such as plea bargaining and the diversion of youth into Alternative Measures, young people may appear in youth court for charges different than the original charges, or may not end up in court at all.



Nonetheless, the pattern of violent cases heard in youth courts is generally consistent with the pattern of charges laid. In 1990-91, 40% of violence-related cases had minor assault as the principal charge. The remainder of the violent offence caseload comprised aggravated assault (23%), weapons-related (13%), robbery (11%), and sexual assault cases (10%). The most serious offences (murder, manslaughter and attempted murder) accounted for less than 1% of all violent offence cases.

Changes in crime levels

The number of both violent offence charges and violence-related youth court cases has increased. Whether or not a real increase in violent youth crime has occurred, however, is uncertain.

The rise in these indicators to some extent may reflect an increase in societal sensitivity to youth violence. For example, a school-yard fist fight that would have resulted in an after-class detention a few years ago now may result in the laying of assault charges. Also, changing law enforcement practices may partially explain the increases. For instance, a city police force that sets up a youth crime unit will likely uncover a greater proportion of youth crime than it had previously. It is also possible that police and Crown counsel are becoming less inclined to exercise discretion in charging and prosecuting young people accused of violent crimes. Police and court statistics are but two indicators of the overall level of violent youth crime.

Many researchers have suggested that economic conditions affect crime levels. This relationship, however, has never been clearly demonstrated and is the source of some controversy. Nevertheless, by 1990, the Canadian economy had moved into a recession that particularly affected young people. The recent increases in violent youth crime statistics may be due in part to changes in economic conditions.

Profile of accused

Over half (53%) of young people accused in violent offence cases in 1990-91 were aged 16 or 17 at the time of the alleged offence. Youth aged 14 and 15 accounted for 35% of violent offence cases, while 12 and 13 year-olds accounted for 11%. These findings are generally consistent with the overall youth court caseload.

Age distribution did not vary greatly among different types of violent offence cases, with the exception of sexual assault. Sexual assault cases involved young people aged 14 and 15 (43%) more often than those aged 16 and 17 (39%). Also, youth accused in murder cases tended to be slightly older than other types of accused. These age distributions have remained quite stable since 1986-87.

Of youth accused in violent offence cases in 1990-91, the vast majority (82%) were male. Within different types of violent offences, there were variations. Males represented 98% of those accused in sexual assault cases, 94% in weapons and 72% in minor assault cases. Although females accounted for a minority of accused in all categories, they have been accused more frequently in recent years, representing 18% of the violent caseload in 1990-91, up from 15% in 1986-87.

In 1990-91, young people accused in violence-related cases were less likely to

Violent crime in the United States

Violent crime has also increased in the United States, although the levels of violent crime are generally higher in the U.S. Nevertheless, the pattern of growth in violent crime for both youth and adults is similar to that found in Canada.

American Uniform Crime Report statistics show that the number of violence-related charges against people under 18 years of age increased to close to 74,000 in 1990, up 38% from about 53,500 in 1986. American Uniform Crime Reports categorize only murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault as "violent" offences. The Canadian categorization is broader (including minor assault, for example) and explains the apparently higher relative proportion and more dramatic increase in violent charges against youth in Canada.

The number of charges against adults in the U.S. has grown at a pace similar to that in Canada. In 1990, police laid just under 400,000 charges for violent offences against people aged 18 and over in the U.S., up 33% from almost 300,000 in 1986.

Available U.S. juvenile court statistics show that the number of cases involving violent offences increased 23% to 70,000 in 1986, from 57,000 in 1982. Among those accused in these violence-related cases, 83% were male, paralleling the situation in Canada.

have had prior youth court convictions (36%) than youth accused in property offence cases (40%). Within different types of violent cases, accused youth were most likely to have had prior convictions in murder cases (54%) and least likely in sexual assault cases (27%).

Statistics based on socio-economic background, family characteristics, and the race or ethnicity of young people accused in youth court cases are not collected. Nor are data available on whether youth who committed crimes acted as individuals or as members of groups such as youth gangs.

Decisions

The majority of youth court cases, violent and non-violent, result in a conviction. In 1990-91, 65% of youth accused of violent offences either pleaded or were found guilty on the principal charge. The conviction rate for non-violent cases was somewhat higher, 72%. Conviction rates varied considerably with the type of violent offence. In general, the less serious cases had higher conviction rates. For example, cases involving minor assault, the most common and less serious violent offence, had a 72% conviction rate. Other conviction rates included robbery (66%), aggravated assault (62%), sexual assault (60%) and weapons cases (58%). In comparison, 50% of murder cases, 42% of manslaughter cases and only 14% of attempted murder cases resulted in a conviction. It is possible, however, that judges reached other decisions on lesser or reduced charges. For example, a stayed or withdrawn attempted murder case may have resulted in a conviction on an aggravated assault charge.

Transfers to adult court

Youth court judges may transfer cases to adult court. Cases can be considered for transfer only if the youth was at least 14 years old at the time of the alleged offence. Judges must consider several factors under the YOA when deciding whether to transfer a case to adult court. These include: the seriousness of the alleged offence; the young person's maturity, character and offence history; and, the availability of treatment and correctional resources. In addition, judges must consider a pre-disposition report as well as any representation made by the parents before authorizing a transfer. Transfer orders are also subject to review by a higher court.

In practice, very few violent offence cases are transferred to adult court. In 1990-91 (excluding Ontario), youth court judges transferred 23 violent cases including 7 aggravated assault, 5 sexual assault, 5 robbery, 3 murder, 2 minor assault cases and 1 weapons case.

Dispositions (sentences)

Of the violent offence cases with youth court convictions in 1990-91, 55% resulted in probation as the most serious disposition. Secure custody (13%) and open custody (13%) were next most common. While secure custody involves admission to facilities specially designated for the secure containment or restraint of young offenders, open custody dispositions are served in community residential centres, group homes, child-care institutions or wilderness camps. Other dispositions given in convicted violent offence cases in 1990-91 included fines (7%), community service orders (6%), and absolute discharges (5%). Youth court judges can order a variety of other dispositions including compensation, detainment for treatment, apology, essay, jail tour, curfew, or an order to obtain treatment for alcohol or drug abuse. However, less than 2% of convicted violent cases resulted in any of these as the most serious disposition.

Cases with more serious offences tended to result in more serious dispositions. Secure custody was ordered most often in convicted murder (88%), manslaughter (80%), and attempted murder cases (67%).

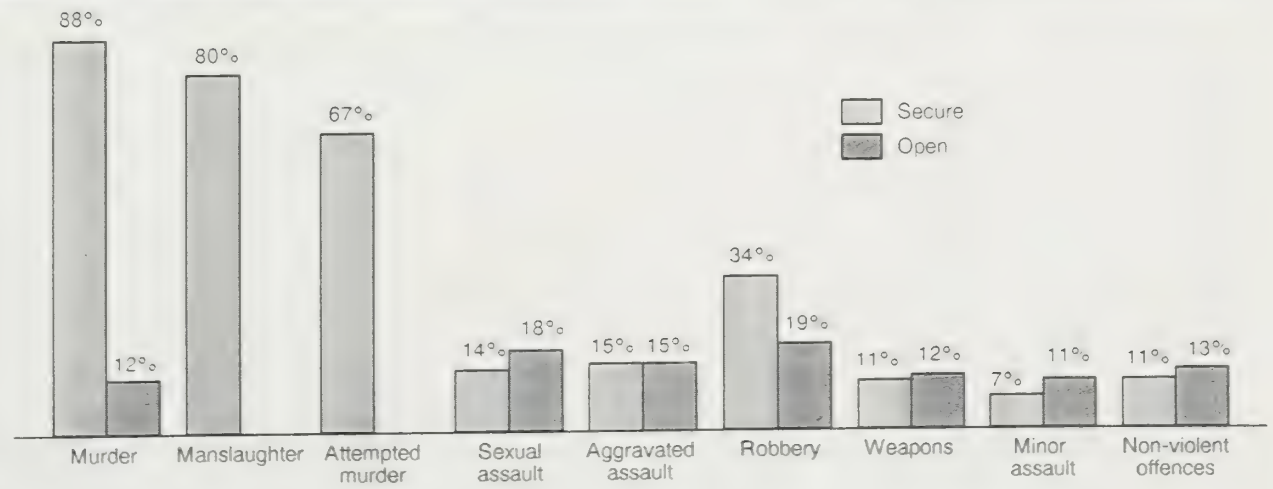
Cases transferred to adult court [1]

	Violent	Non-violent
1986-87	48	87
1987-88	35	63
1988-89	19	48
1989-90	26	19
1990-91	23	32

[1]Data exclude Ontario.
Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Youth Court Survey, 1986-87 to 1990-91.

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Custodial dispositions, by type of offence[1], 1990-91



[1] Data exclude Ontario

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Youth Court Survey, 1990-91.



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Average sentence length, by type of offence[1], 1990-91



[1] Data exclude Ontario.

Sources: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Youth Court Survey, 1990 91.

At the same time, judges ordered secure custody dispositions in only 7% of convicted minor assault cases.

Sentence lengths

Youth found guilty of violent offences generally served longer sentences than those convicted of non-violent offences. The average secure custody term for violent young offenders in 1990-91 was 6 months, compared with about 3 months for non-violent offenders. Similarly, open custody terms averaged 4 months for violent young offenders and 3 for non-violent young offenders. The average probation term was 11 months for violent offenders and 10 for non-violent offenders. These sentence lengths have not varied significantly since 1986-87.

The less serious violent offence of minor assault accounted for 23% of secure custody, 36% of open custody, and 46% of probation dispositions. Consequently, the average sentence lengths for violent crime were longer when minor assault cases were excluded. In general, the lengths of custody terms were related to the seriousness of the violent offence.

Victims of violent youth crime

In 1988, several police departments began participating in the *incident-based* Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) survey, recording victim and other incident-based data not included in the conventional UCR. By the end of 1991, 14 police forces[1] had reported over 5,000 incidents of minor assault, aggravated assault, sexual assault and robbery that involved charges against youth. While not representative of any particular geographic area of Canada, these data provide an indication of victim characteristics.

Generally, victims of violent youth crime tended to be other youth. Victims were aged 12-17 in 50% of reported minor, 45% of aggravated, and 35% of sexual assaults, and in 34% of robberies. Children under 12 accounted for 60% of victims in reported sexual assault incidents. Overall, people aged 65 and older were victims in 1% of violent youth crimes.

Victims of violent youth crime were predominantly male except in sexual assault incidents. Males were victims in 76% of aggravated assaults, 67% of robberies and 59% of minor assaults. Females, however, made up 79% of sexual assault victims.

Location of violent incidents

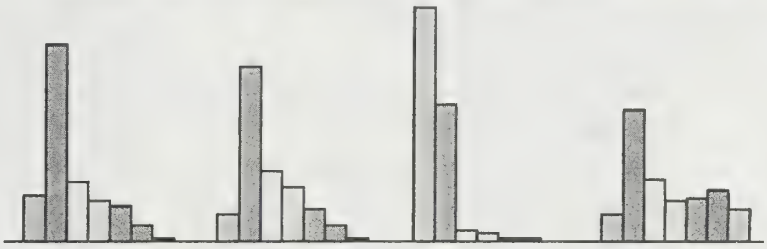
A general perception exists that a large proportion of violent youth crime occurs in schools. According to the incident-based UCR, however, minor and aggravated assaults tended to take place in dwellings (27%), on streets or roads (24%), and in schools (15%). As with sexual assaults in general, most sexual assaults by youth (74%) occurred in dwellings. Finally, robberies committed by youth took place most frequently in commercial or corporate places (47%) and on streets or roads (26%). Just 2% of robbery incidents took place in schools.

[1] Fredericton, St. Stephen-Milltown, Charlesbourg, Joliette, Laval, Aylmer, Mont Saint-Hilaire, Sûreté du Québec, Kingston, Niagara, Windsor, Nepean, Regina and Vancouver

Jeffrey Frank *is a research analyst with* Canadian Social Trends.

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Victims of violent youth crime, by age, 1988-1991



	Minor assault	Aggravated assault	Sexual assault	Robbery
< 12	12%	7%	60%	7%
12 - 17	50%	45%	35%	34%
18 - 25	15%	18%	3%	16%
26 - 36	10%	14%	2%	10%
37 - 45	9%	8%	0.5%	11%
46 - 64	4%	4%	0.4%	13%
65 +	1%	1%	0.1%	8%

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Incident-Based Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, 1988-91.

Location of violent youth crimes, 1988 to 1991[1]

	Minor assault	Aggravated assault	Sexual assault	Robbery
		%		
Dwellings	28	26	74	9
Commercial/corporate places	9	10	3	47
Schools	15	13	6	2
Public institutions/transit	8	7	1	2
Parking lots	7	10	2	5
Streets/roads	24	24	5	26
Open areas	8	10	9	8
Number of incidents	2,491	1,008	691	457

[1]Includes incidents for which location was recorded.

Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Incident-Based Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, 1988 to 1991.

ALCOHOL AND DRUG CONSUMPTION AMONG CANADIAN YOUTH

by Marc Eliany

(Adapted from the report on the National Alcohol and Drugs Survey)



Fewer Canadian youth were drinking, smoking and using illicit drugs in 1989 than in 1985. Nonetheless, Canadians aged 15-24 still consumed more illicit drugs and tobacco than any other age group. Young men were more likely than young women to consume alcohol, tobacco and illicit drugs. However, at age 15-16, girls were more likely than boys to be current drinkers and smokers.

The abuse of alcohol, drugs and tobacco among young Canadians can lead to many problems ranging from health, family, and financial to wider social problems such as drinking and driving. Substance abuse, on the other hand, may stem from problems young people may be facing in their lives. For example, some young heavy drinkers stated that they drank to forget worries.

Consumption patterns

Alcohol: On average, 43% of young Canadians aged 15-24 drank at least once per week in 1989. About half of these weekly drinkers consumed alcohol more often than once per week. Also, of all current (consumed at least one drink in the year prior to the survey) drinkers aged 15-24, 12% consumed eight or more drinks in the week prior to the survey.

Young men are more likely than young women to be current drinkers, with the exception of youths aged 15-16. At this age, more girls (66%) than boys (61%) reported being current drinkers.

Nevertheless, in general, young men drink more often and are more likely than young women to consume more when they do drink. In the year before the 1989 survey, 54% of Canadian men aged 15-24 consumed alcohol at least once per week, compared with 30% of their female counterparts. Also, young male current drinkers reported consuming an average of 4.4 drinks per occasion, compared with 3.0 for young women.

Still, the proportion of young people consuming alcohol dropped over the last half of the 1980s. In 1989, 74% of 15-19 year-olds reported consuming alcohol in the year preceding the survey. In 1985, the proportion had been 81%, according to the 1985 Canada Health Survey. Similarly, among those aged 20-24, the percentage of current drinkers dropped to 88% in 1989 from 92% in 1985.

The average amount of alcohol consumed by Canadian youth also declined. In 1989, current drinkers aged 15-19 consumed an average of 2.4 drinks per week, down from 3.3 in 1985. The decrease was more substantial among 20-24 year-olds, who consumed an average of 4.3 drinks per week in 1989, compared with 6.0 in 1985.

Tobacco: About one out of every three (30%) young Canadians aged 15-24 was a smoker in 1989 and almost all smoked on a daily basis (99%). Young men smoked more heavily than young women, while a similar proportion of male (30%) and female (31%) youth were smokers in 1989. Women aged 15-16 are an exception to this pattern. These women (15%) were more likely to smoke than their male counterparts (10%).

Self-reported smoking among youth has dropped off considerably since 1979. Among 15-19 year-olds, the percentage of smokers fell to 23% in 1989, down from 29% in 1985[1], and 35% in 1979[2]. The proportion of people aged 20-24 who smoked dropped to 37% in 1989, down from 41% in 1985, and 51% in 1979. The rate of decrease among 20-24 year-olds appears to have slowed down.

A comparison between 1989 NADS data and smoking behaviour data from the 1986 Labour Force Survey (LFS) shows a slight increase in smoking among youth. However, this increase is likely due to methodological differences between the two surveys: NADS data were self-reported, while the LFS included proxy reporting.

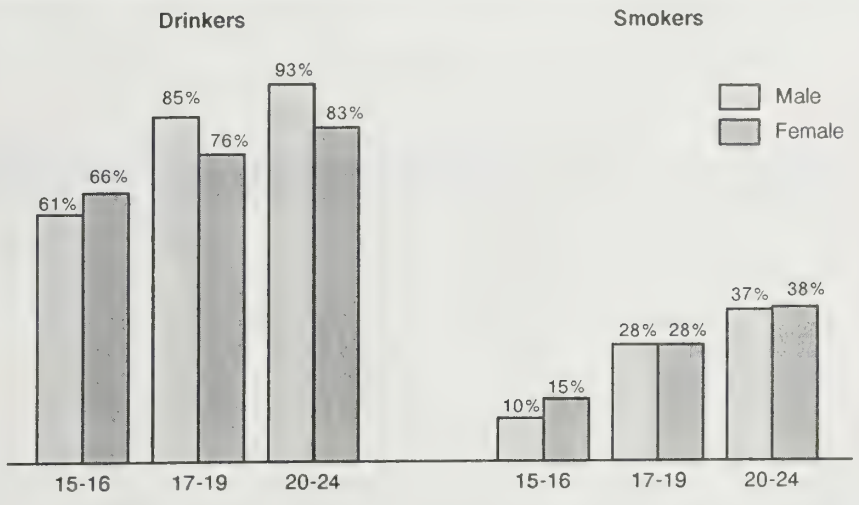
Current drinkers, smokers and marijuana users, aged 15-24, 1989

	Canada	Atlantic	Quebec	Ontario	Prairies	British Columbia
Current drinkers - %						
Total	81.4	74.7	82.9	78.1	87.1	85.6
Men	84.8	80.3	88.9	80.7	88.6	87.3
Women	77.8	68.9	76.7	75.3	85.4	83.9
Drinks per week						
Total	3.4	2.5	3.0	3.6	4.1	3.6
Men	4.8	3.4	4.1	4.9	6.0	5.3
Women	1.9	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.1	1.8
Current smokers - %						
Total	30.3	33.6	31.2	29.4	35.4	19.9
Men	29.6	35.5	29.9	29.9	33.4	16.3
Women	31.0	31.6	32.6	28.8	37.5	23.5
Current cannabis users - %						
Total	15.5	12.8	16.9	12.8	13.0	27.6
Men	19.1	15.6	19.3	16.3	19.5	31.4
Women	11.7	9.8	14.6	9.1	6.4	24.0

Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *Alcohol and Other Drug Use by Canadian Youth*, 1992.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Current young drinkers and smokers, by age, 1989



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *Alcohol and Other Drug Use by Canadian Youth*, 1992

[1] Andrew J. Siggner, *Special Study on Youth, Canada's Health Promotion Survey (Technical Report Series), 1988.*

[2] Health and Welfare Canada and Statistics Canada, *The Health of Canadians (Report of the Canada Health Series)*, 1988

Fewer youths reported being heavy smokers in 1989 than in earlier surveys. Between 1985 and 1989, the proportion of smokers aged 15-19 who were heavy smokers (11 or more cigarettes daily) dropped to 56% from 68%. Over the same period, the proportion of heavy smokers among smokers aged 20-24 dropped to 70% from 80%.

Illicit drugs: Most young people do not use illicit drugs. According to the 1989 NADS, just 16% of young Canadians had used illicit drugs at least once. Young men were generally more likely than young women to have tried illicit drugs. However, a larger proportion of women than men aged 15-16 had used cannabis (marijuana or hashish) at some point in their lives: 16% compared with 13%.

Nevertheless, fewer adolescent students used cannabis and other illicit drugs in 1989 than had a decade earlier. According to the Addiction Research Foundation, while cannabis was the most common illicit drug used by Ontario students, its use was declining. In 1989, 15% of Ontario students reported using cannabis, down from 32% in 1979.

LSD use was next most common. In 1989, 6% of Ontario students reported using LSD, down from 10% in 1981. Cocaine use had also dropped, with 3% of students reporting cocaine use in 1989, down from a peak of 5% in 1979. Fewer students used speed (3%) and heroin (1%) during the 12 months prior to the 1989 survey than in earlier years, although the decline was minimal.

Reasons for drinking

Most Canadians aged 15-24 drink to be sociable. In 1989, 69% of current young drinkers reported drinking for this reason in the year preceding the survey. Drinking to feel good (42%) was the second most common reason, followed by drinking to relax (39%), to add to the enjoyment of meals (32%), to feel less inhibited or shy (23%), and to forget worries (16%).

Drinking to be sociable and to relax increased with age. Among current drinkers aged 15-19, 63% drank to be sociable, compared with 74% of 20-24 year-olds. Similarly, 37% of current drinkers aged 15-19 drank to relax, compared with 41% of 20-24 year-olds.

Drinking to forget worries and to feel less inhibited or shy was more common among teenagers. In 1989, 20% of current drinkers aged 15-19 drank to forget worries, compared with 13% of adult drinkers aged 20-24. Similarly, 28% of those aged 15-19 drank to feel less inhibited or shy, compared with 19% of those aged 20-24.

Aside from drinking to be sociable, current young drinkers consumed alcohol primarily for "personal" reasons, either to achieve a positive mood, or to alleviate a negative one. Consistent with previous research, the results of the 1989 NADS indicate that drinking for personal reasons is associated with heavy drinking behaviour. Drinking for social reasons, however, is related to low or moderate consumption levels.

Youth who drank to forget worries had consumed an average of 6.5 drinks per week, compared with 3.8 drinks per week consumed by those who drank for social reasons. Over one-third (35%) of those who drank to forget worries had consumed 5 or more drinks on 15 or more occasions in the previous year, compared with 21% of those who drank for social reasons.

Alcohol-related problems

One out of every four current drinkers (23%) aged 15-24 reported having experienced an alcohol-related problem in the year preceding the survey. Most were physical health problems (11%), followed by problems with friends or social life (9%), financial position (9%), happiness or outlook (6%), work or studies (5%) and home life (5%).

Young men (28%) were more likely than young women (18%) to report alcohol-related problems. This is consistent with the higher alcohol consumption levels reported by men than women.

Young drinkers are more likely than their older counterparts to have experienced a recent alcohol-related problem. While 23% of those aged 15-24 had experienced an alcohol-related problem in the year before the survey, this was the case for 13% of those aged 25-34. This may be a consequence of the heavy drinking common among Canadian teenagers. Almost half (48%) of those who had consumed 5 or more drinks on 15 or more occasions had experienced problems. In contrast, only 8% of those who had not consumed 5 or more drinks on a single occasion had experienced an alcohol-related problem in the year preceding the survey.

Because young people are more often exposed to heavy drinking, they are more likely than older Canadians to experience problems as a result of other people's drinking. In 1989, 69% of young Canadians

National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey

In 1987, Health and Welfare Canada initiated Canada's National Drug Strategy to help reduce the impact of drug abuse on individuals, families and communities. As an integral part of this initiative, Statistics Canada conducted the National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey (NADS) in March 1989 on behalf of Health and Welfare Canada.

Data about the use of alcohol, tobacco and drugs were collected through telephone surveys from a sample of about 12,000 Canadians aged 15 and over in the 10 provinces. The survey excluded residents of institutions such as hospitals and prisons as well as residents of the Yukon and Northwest Territories, where special sampling methods are required. This study is based on the responses of roughly 2,000 young Canadians aged 15-24 who participated in the survey.

A major concern in any survey of alcohol and other drugs is the accuracy of self-reported data. While a certain degree of under-reporting can be expected, the survey had a high overall response rate (79%), thereby increasing confidence in the representativeness of the sample.

Reasons for drinking, 1989

	To be sociable	To enjoy meals	To feel good	To relax	To forget worries	To feel less inhibited
15-19	63.2	30.9	42.6	37.0	20.0	28.2
Men	62.4	31.9	45.5	43.8	23.0	29.2
Women	63.5	29.8	39.1	29.4	16.7	26.8
20-24	73.7	33.2	42.3	41.2	13.4	19.2
Men	71.4	34.8	44.8	43.2	15.6	20.9
Women	76.3	31.4	39.5	39.0	19.8	17.2

Source: Health and Welfare Canada, *Alcohol and Other Drug Use by Canadian Youth*, 1992.

reported having experienced a problem as a result of other people's drinking behaviour. Within the twelve months prior to the 1989 survey, 18% of young Canadians were pushed, hit or physically assaulted by someone who had been drinking. A further 12% had experienced family problems, and 8% had their property vandalized by someone who had been drinking. In addition, 23% of Canadian youth had been passengers in a motor vehicle with an intoxicated driver. Almost 3% had been in a car accident caused by someone else's drinking.

Drinking and driving

Drinking and driving is most common among Canadians between the ages of 20 and 34. In 1989, 30% of those in this age group reported driving within an hour of consuming two or more drinks, compared with 23% of those aged 35-44, and 21% of those aged 15-19 or 45-54. Drinking and driving was much less common among Canadians aged 55-64 (11%) and those aged 65 and over (8%).



Regardless of age, men were more likely than women to drink and drive. In 1989, among teenagers, 26% of men and 14% of women reported drinking and driving. Among those aged 20-24, 38% of men and 21% of women reported drinking and driving at some point. Men aged 20-24 (38%) were second only to men aged 25-34 (43%) in their frequency of drinking and driving.

However, drinking and driving among Ontario students declined during the past decade, according to the Addiction Research Foundation. In 1989, 27% of students reported drinking and driving during the 12 months prior to the survey, down from 58% in 1977.

Attitudes towards drinking

Canadian youth were the most likely of any age group to condone heavy drinking, especially by men, in bars or at parties. In 1989, 37% of young Canadians felt that it was acceptable for a man at a bar with his friends to drink enough to feel the effects, while another 51% felt that one or two drinks was permissible. Only 5% felt that no drinking should take place in this setting.

Young people were not quite as likely to accept women as men drinking in bars or taverns. In 1989, 29% thought that it was acceptable for a woman in this setting to drink enough to feel the effects, 58% thought that having one or two drinks was permissible, and 7% felt that women should not drink at all. Opinions on drinking at parties were similar.

Attitudes about drinking were less restrictive among young men than among young women. In 1989, 37% of young men felt that it was acceptable to drink enough to feel the effects at a party, compared with 25% of women. Men aged 15-24 were more tolerant of women drinking than women were themselves. While one-third (33%) of young men felt that it was acceptable for a woman to drink enough to feel the effects when at a bar with friends, only one-quarter (24%) of young women felt the same way.

One half (48%) of young Canadians felt that no drinking should take place when people get together for sports events or recreational activities. An additional 39% felt that alcohol consumption in this setting should be restricted to one or two drinks, while 8% believed that drinking enough to feel the effects was acceptable in this context.

Multiple drug use

The results of the 1989 NADS suggest that among young Canadians, the use of one substance is highly related to the use of other substances. More than one-third (37%) of young Canadians aged 15-24 had used two or more drugs included in the survey (alcohol, tobacco, cannabis, cocaine, LSD, heroin, speed, and licit drugs taken within the previous 30 days). One-quarter (25%) were current users of two substances, while 12% had used three drugs or more. About half of all young Canadians (48%) used only one drug, and 15% were not current users of any of the substances included in the survey.

Although young smokers were only slightly more likely to report using alcohol than youth in general (89% compared with 81%), they were twice as likely to use cannabis (27% compared with 16%). In comparison, 7% of Canadians overall had used cannabis in the year before the survey. Similarly, almost all young cannabis users (99%) and cocaine users (89%) had consumed alcohol in the year preceding the survey.

Marc Eliany *is the National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey Project Manager, and a senior analyst with the Health Services and Promotion Branch, Health and Welfare Canada.*

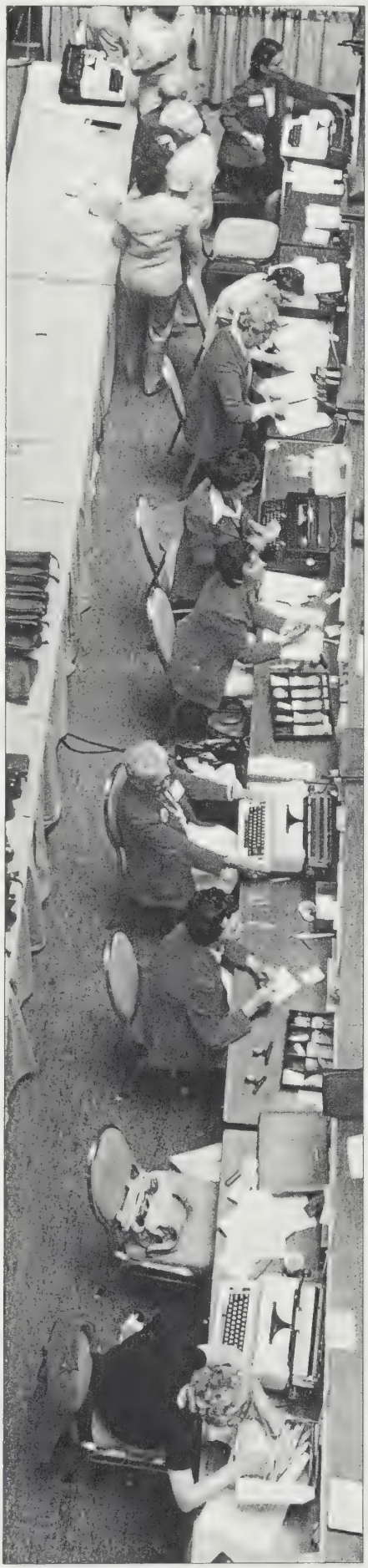
GSS patterns consistent

Statistics Canada's 1991 General Social Survey (GSS) confirms the patterns of drinking and smoking among young Canadians reported in the 1989 NADS. For example, young men were more likely than young women to drink alcohol and consumed more alcohol than young women. Among current drinkers, Canadians aged 20-24 (80% of men and 58% of women), were the most likely to drink at least once a month. Similarly, heavy drinking (14 or more drinks per week) was most prevalent among current drinkers in this age group (19% of men and 5% of women).

GSS data show a decrease in smoking among youth. In 1991, 23% of youth aged 15-16 reported smoking, down from 27% in 1985. The proportion of 20-24 year-olds who smoked decreased only slightly to 40% in 1991 from 42% in 1985, supporting that the decrease in this age group has decelerated.

Teenaged women (15-19 years) were more likely than men of the same age to smoke and to be heavy smokers. In 1991, 20% of teenaged women and 12% of men this age were regular smokers[1]. Of these, more than two-thirds (67%) of the women smoked 11 or more cigarettes daily, in contrast to about one-half (53%) of the men.

1 "Regular smokers include only those who smoke daily, while the NADS concept of "current" smokers includes both daily and occasional smokers.



OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

by Leslie Geran

Many Canadians lead stressful lives, according to data from the 1991 General Social Survey and 1990 Health Promotion Survey. Reported stress levels vary by family composition and main activity, and also by occupation. Occupational stress has been linked to a number of health and lifestyle problems for workers, such as ulcers and alcoholism. Stress has also been linked to increased costs for employers, due to absenteeism and lowered productivity. These costs are difficult to quantify because stress is complex in its causes and consequences. Nonetheless, the recognition of occupational stress as a threat to the mental and physical health of Canadians has produced changes in the workplace. Health and safety programs designed to help people cope with stress and its effects are available in many workplaces. Provincial Workers' Compensation Boards and Commissions have begun to compensate workers for a deterioration in their health due to job-related stress. Regulations of particular boards, however, vary across Canada.

What is stress?

Stress is a force that acts upon an individual. Definitions of stress focus on individuals and their interaction with their surroundings. Factors called stressors cause an initial shock to an individual. Resistance to stressors can produce positive stress – a feeling of challenge, creativity or innovation that leads to above-normal performance levels. Continued exposure to stressors or a failure to change, avoid or adapt to stressors leads to exhaustion and illness. Potential stressors in the workplace include conflicts with co-workers and clients, unreasonable deadlines, lack of feedback on performance, overwork or underwork, sexual harassment, and exposure to harmful chemicals or noise.

Factors outside of the immediate job site may intensify or alleviate the effects of work-related stressors. Supportive friends and family, visits with a doctor or counsellor, and participation in workplace health and safety programs may help a person cope with occupational stress. A stressful home life or a lack of social support may aggravate the effects of job stress.

Constant or severe stress can threaten both mental and physical health. Symptoms of persistent stress include psychological, physiological, and behavioural changes that result in depression, job dissatisfaction, increased blood pressure, increased blood serum cholesterol, increased risk of coronary disease, migraine headaches, and increased drug and alcohol consumption.

Measuring stress

Stress may be measured in a number of ways. Stress researchers use multiple indicators to determine the amount of stress in a person's life. Monitoring the behavioural, physiological, and biochemical effects of stress, as well as self-reported measures of stress, may better identify the impact of stress and how people react to and cope with stress.

One way to determine whether people are feeling stress is to ask them if they consider their lives to be stressful. The 1991 General Social Survey (11,900 respondents) and the 1990 Health Promotion Survey (13,800 respondents) asked Canadians 15 years of age and older questions on health status and disabilities, lifestyle characteristics, and views of individual health. While these surveys were not intended as studies of stress, several questions from the surveys are relevant to the study of stress. All of the data are from self-reports, and depend on individual perceptions of stress.

Who feels stress?

Men and women perceive nearly identical levels of stress in their lives. According to the 1991 General Social Survey, 7% of women and 8% of men said their lives were "very stressful". The 1990 Health Promotion Survey had similar findings.

Stress levels vary by family composition. Divorced, separated, or widowed people feel higher levels of stress than married or single (never married) people. In 1991, 10% of divorced, separated or widowed people reported that their lives were "very stressful", compared with 7% of married people (includes people in common-law unions) and 7% of single people. A similar pattern was found in the 1990 survey. The 1991 survey also found that 9% of adults with children in their household reported "very stressful" lives compared, with 7% of people with no children in the household.

Reported stress levels also vary by main activity. In 1991, 9% of people who said they were mainly working at a job or business described their lives as "very stressful". Students (6%), homemakers (6%) and retired persons (3%)[1] were less likely to say their lives were "very stressful". People looking for work and those doing some other activity such as recovering from an illness or living with a long-term disability were the most likely (16%) to report having "very stressful" lives.

[1] High sampling variance due to small size of sample. Use data with caution.

Workplace stress levels

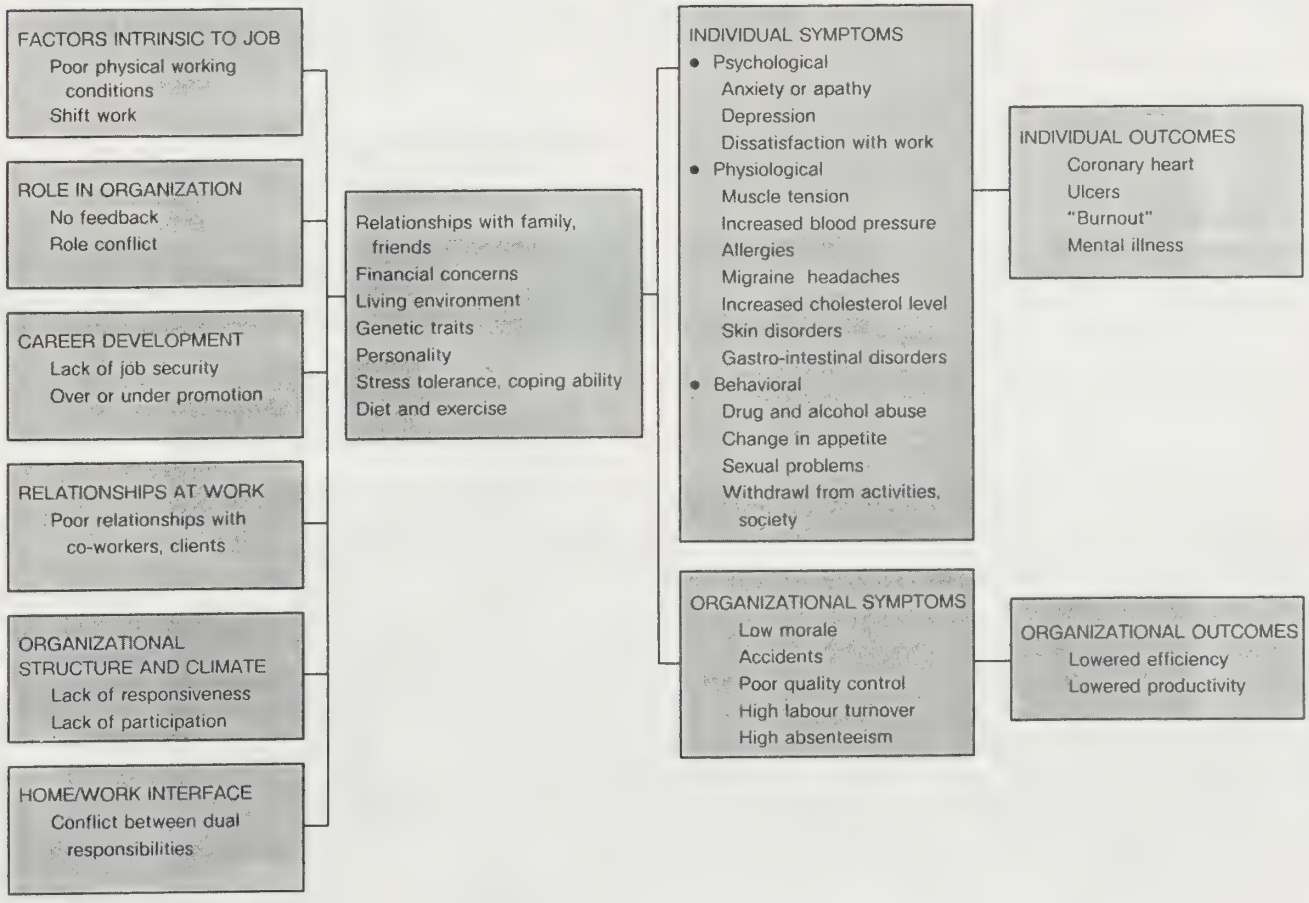
In 1991, 9% of people who had a job or were self-employed at some time during the previous year described their lives as "very stressful". Only 6% of blue collar workers reported "very stressful" lives, compared with 11% of people employed in non-managerial or professional occupations and 11%[1] of people in agricultural occupations. People in clerical occupations (8%), sales (9%), or service (9%) occupations were about as likely as people in managerial occupations (10%) to report having "very stressful" lives.

Workplace stressors

Stressors – factors that provoke a stress reaction in people – are many, varied, and common within the workplace. In 1991, 38% of people who had a job or

[1] High sampling variance due to small size of sample. Use data with caution.

SOURCES AND OUTCOMES OF OCCUPATIONAL STRESS



Source: Adapted from C.L. Cooper, "The Six Major Causes of Stress at Work" in *Health Promotion in the Working World* (1989).

were self-employed indicated that they had encountered a work situation within the previous twelve months that caused excess stress or worry. Job demands and hours of work were identified as stressors by 26% of workers. Stressors also included the threat of layoff (10% of workers), poor interpersonal relations (12%), the risk of accident or injury (7%), harassment (3%), and discrimination (3%).

In 1990, almost half (49%) of all workers reported encountering at least one of five different stressful situations within the previous six months, according to the Health Promotion Survey. Unreasonable deadlines, the most common stressor, was reported by 27% of workers.[2] Conflicts with people at work (23%), lack of feedback (23%), unclear duties (22%), and not having enough influence over the job (22%) were also identified as sources of stress.

People deal with stress in a variety of ways. More than one-half (58%) of workers who encountered stressful situations indicated that they had done nothing to improve the situation, according to the 1991 General Social Survey. Of the 41% who said they had done something, 5%[2] left their job for another job either with the same employer or with a different employer, 7% left the paid workforce by quitting, retiring, or taking leave without pay, and 6% reduced their hours of work. Over one-quarter (27%) of the workers said they changed their attitude and learned to relax, and 63% chose some other action, such as talking to their supervisor or co-workers.

The physical work environment is also a concern to workers. About one out of three (32%) people working at a job or business believed that exposure to physical work conditions within the previous year had or could have had a negative impact on their health. Poor air quality was cited by 16% of workers. Other concerns included dust and fibres in the air (15%), loud noise (11%), exposure to computer screens (7%), and exposure to dangerous chemicals or fumes (9%).

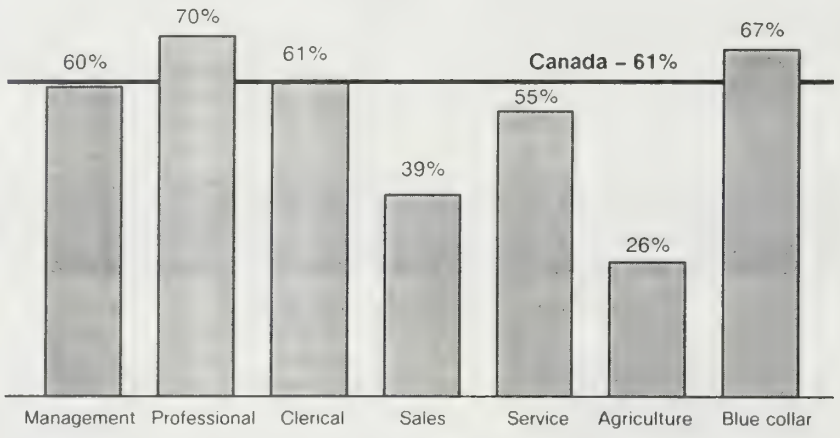
Health and safety programs

In 1990, 61% of workers said they had access to some type of workplace health and safety program, according to the Health Promotion Survey. These programs may help workers cope with stress and its effects. Common programs include: on-site fitness classes, counselling, safety awareness, substance abuse programs, and time and stress management classes. Over one-half (52%) of all workers said that a safety or accident prevention program was available at their workplace. Mental and physical health programs were less common. In 1990, 32% of workers reported that counselling was available for psychological or drug and alcohol abuse problems, while 31% of workers said that health promotion programs such as fitness classes, nutrition counselling or smoking cessation programs were available.

Workers in small organizations were less likely than those in large organizations to say that a health and safety program was available at their place of work. In 1990, 74% of workers in organizations of 1 to 19 employees reported that no physical health, safety, or mental health program was available, compared with 44% of workers in organizations with 20 to 99 employees, 26% of workers in organizations with 100 to 499 employees, and 15% of employees in organizations with over 500 employees.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

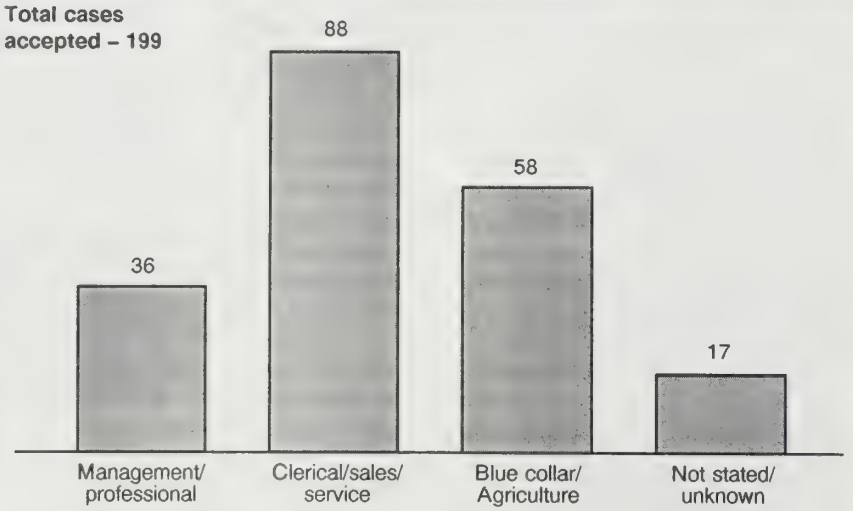
Workers reporting workplace health and safety programs[1], 1990



[1] At least one type of program available at the place of work.
Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division, 1990 Health Promotion Survey, unpublished data.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Stress and psychiatric workplace injuries[1], 1990



[1] Number of cases accepted as time-loss injuries by provincial Workers' Compensation Boards and Commissions.
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Division, unpublished data.

350 YEARS OF HISTORY

by **Guy Oddo**

350 YEARS
MONTRÉAL
let's celebrate

Jacques Cartier discovered the island on which Montreal is situated in 1535 and, 350 years ago, on May 8th, 1642, Maisonneuve founded the city of Montreal. Since then, the city has expanded such that the population now numbers over one million. In fact, as of the 1991 Census, 1,017,700 residents lived within the city limits, making Montreal Canada's largest municipality.

Montreal is also the centre of Canada's second largest Census Metropolitan Area (CMA), an area which is home to more than three million people. Toronto's CMA population numbers almost four million, making it Canada's largest, while Vancouver ranks third with 1.6 million residents.

The city of Montreal expanded rapidly during the first half of the 20th century. By the 1951 Census, 1,029,100 lived within the city limits, almost quadruple the 1901 count of 267,700. This increase occurred at a time when, similar to the situation of the whole country, birth rates were high. In addition, Montreal was a main point of entry for international immigrants and was attracting a rural population in a country which quickly was becoming urbanized. Another reason for the rapid growth was the expansion of the city's boundaries



Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

Canada

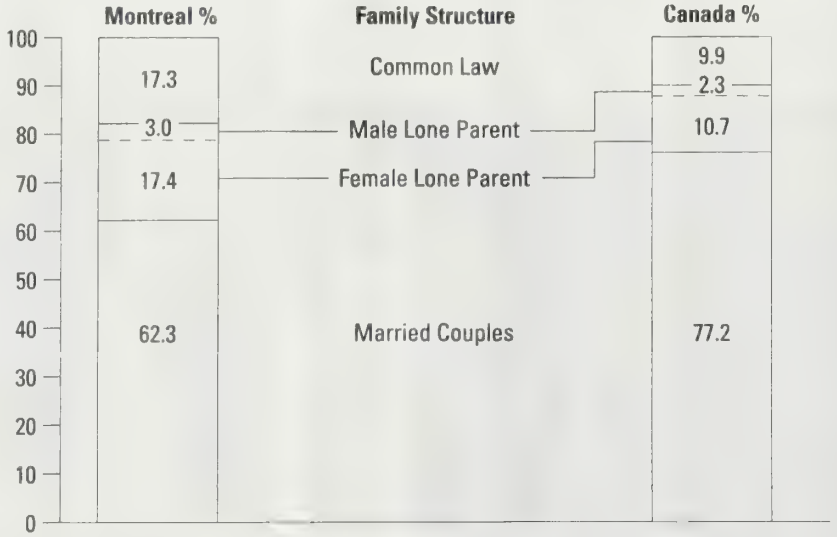


lone parent or child. This proportion is considerably lower than the Canadian average of 84%.

In addition, the structure of Montreal families is distinctly different from Canadian families overall. Specifically, the proportion of married-couple families is much lower for Montreal than for Canada, while common-law and lone-parent families are much more prevalent. In 1991, 62% of Montreal families included married couples with or without children living with them, compared with 77% of Canadian families. Lone-parent families accounted for 20% of all Montreal families in 1991, while common-law families made up the remaining 17%.

The distribution of the different family structures is reflected in the size of Montreal families. In 1991, over one-half (53%) of Montreal families had only two people. Of the remaining families, about one-quarter (24%) had three people, 16% had four people, and only 7% had five or more. Not surprisingly, therefore, the average size of a Montreal family was relatively small. In 1991, families living in Montreal averaged 2.8 people, compared with 3.1 for Canadian families overall.

DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES, BY STRUCTURE, CITY OF MONTREAL AND CANADA, 1991



Source: 1991 Census of Canada

HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

Private households are generally made up of fewer people in Montreal than in Canada as a whole. According to the 1991 Census, the average number of people in private households in Montreal was 2.2, compared with 2.7 for Canada.

This is mainly due to the over-representation of one-person households in Montreal compared to Canada. In 1991, 38% of Montreal households were made up of one person, compared with 23% of all Canadian households.

In 1991, three-quarters of Montreal households were renting their accommodation. In contrast, just over one-third (37%) of Canadian households were renters.

Guy Oddo *is a consulting analyst at the Statistics Canada Advisory Services Centre, Quebec Region.*

People employed in agriculture (26%) or sales (39%) were less likely than people in other occupations to state that a workplace health and safety program was available, while professionals were most likely (70%) to report that at least one type of workplace program was offered at their place of work.

Stress injuries and compensation

In 1990, 156 cases of time-loss stress injuries and 43 cases of psychiatric disorders were accepted by provincial Workers' Compensation Boards and Commissions across Canada. This was a large increase from 1989 when fewer than 10 cases had been accepted; 1989, however, was the first year that stress and mental health claims were coded as a unique classification of injury. Before 1989, these injuries had been coded under "other" injuries in the National Work Injuries Statistics Program of Statistics Canada.

In 1990, the number of stress and psychological disorder cases accepted as time-loss injuries by occupation included 36 cases (20% of cases where the occupation is known) among workers in managerial and professional occupations, 88 cases (48%) among workers in clerical, sales, and service occupations, and 58 cases (32%) among workers in blue collar and agricultural occupations. In 17 cases, the occupation was unknown or not stated. In comparison, 32% of the employed paid labour force in 1990 worked in managerial and professional occupations, 40% in clerical, sales and service occupations, and 29% in blue collar and agricultural occupations.

The 199 stress and psychiatric disorder cases accepted in 1990 represented less than 0.1% of the 587,000 time-loss injuries accepted by Workers' Compensation Boards and Commissions across Canada. By contrast, sprains and strains (249,000 time-loss injuries or 42% of total injuries) and contusions and bruises (93,000 time-loss injuries or 16%) made up over one-half of all injuries accepted by Workers' Compensation Boards and Commissions.

Policies on compensating occupational stress differ from one province to another, and it is not possible to make direct provincial comparisons. Policy differences relate to the type of stress that can be compensated. Acute stress resulting from witnessing or being involved in a life-threatening incident and post-traumatic stress stemming from a physical injury are compensated more readily than chronic stress. Establishing that chronic stress is work-related is more difficult because symptoms of exhaustion, burnout, or mental disability result from gradual and cumulative conditions. Compensation for chronic stress has been granted only in Quebec and Saskatchewan. The Ontario Workers' Compensation Board is preparing a policy on workplace stress and entitlement to benefits.

[2] Total does not add to 100% as multiple responses are possible.

Leslie Geran *is a research analyst with* Canadian Social Trends.

Occupational stress: international approaches

The International Labour Organization (ILO[1], a United Nations agency, has called stress "a sickness of modern societies". The ILO is active in distributing information on the effects of automation and work organization on occupational stress. The ILO also sponsors international research and seminars on the topic.

Prevention and compensation of occupational stress vary from country to country. Norway, Sweden, and the Netherlands, for example, have legislation governing the quality of the working environment. Work must be designed to ensure workers are protected from physical and mental hazards, and are provided with meaningful employment. Regulations restricting monotony, isolation, barriers to advancement, and lack of control over work planning and pacing have also been put in place to reduce potential stressors in the workplace.

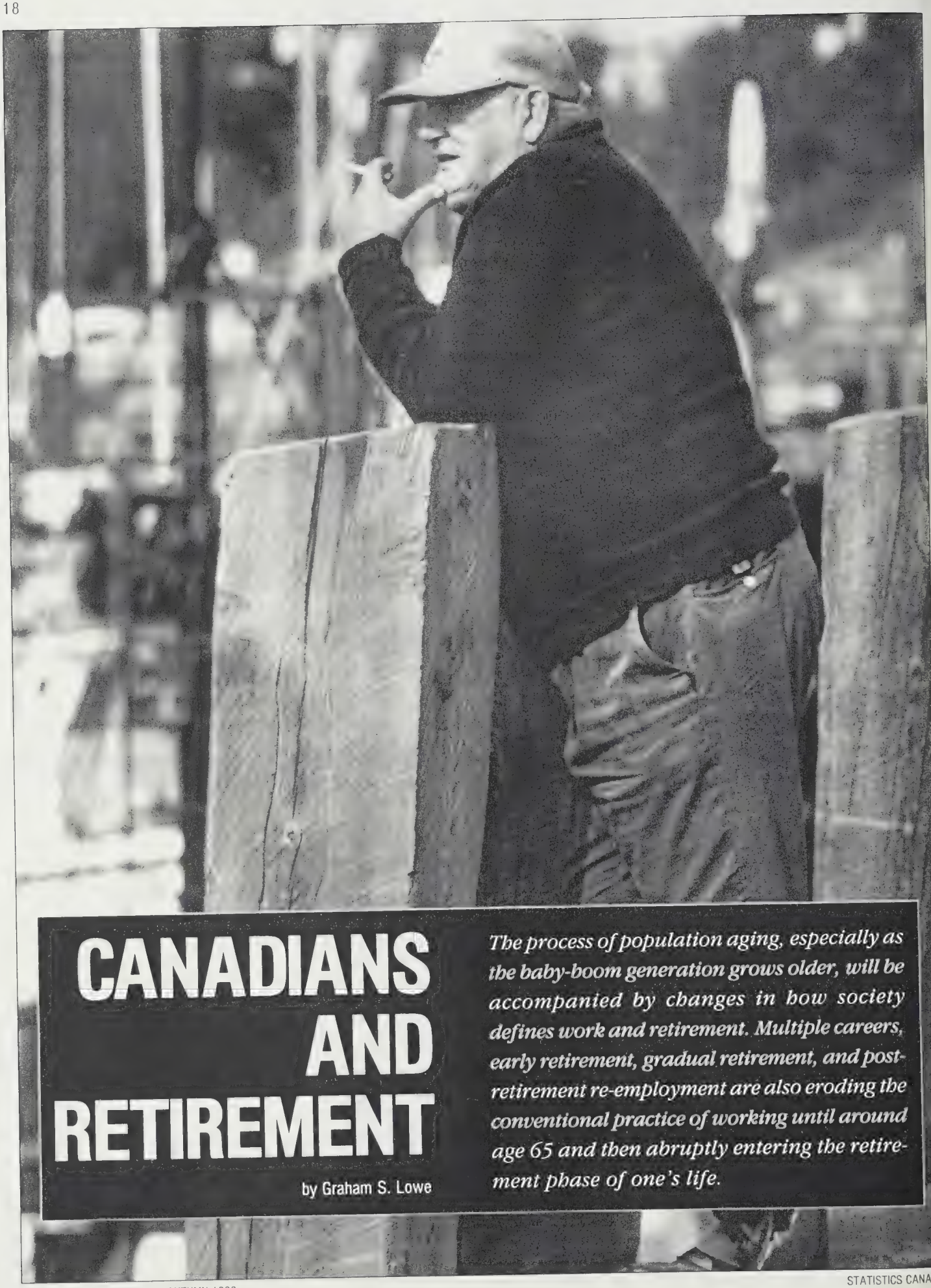
Collective bargaining agreements have been broadened to address stressful working conditions. Agreements between companies and unions in countries such as Japan, United Kingdom, Norway and Denmark have required that the social effects on workers be considered when new technology is introduced in the workplace. Other collective agreement clauses that reduce stress for employees include worker participation in job design and mandatory disclosure of information affecting workers, such as the introduction of new technology in the workplace.

In the United States, psychological disorders resulting from work-related stress are one of the ten leading causes of work-related diseases and injuries, according to the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH)[2]. Stress is also the fastest growing category of workers' compensation claims. In 1989, stress-related claims made up 15% of all claims, up from 5% in 1979.

Compensation in the United States varies from state to state, in part because court decisions have limited or expanded compensation, and also because of legislative action. Colorado, Ohio, and Maine, for example, have passed legislation that restricts Compensation for some types of stress-related claims. Claims with a physical injury either as a cause or result of stress are accepted in most states. Claims for mental disorders caused by a mental stimulus have a wider variance of acceptance. Some states such as California, Michigan and Hawaii compensate chronic stress claims when the source of the stress is neither unusual nor unique to the job.

[1] International Labour Office, *ILO Information* (February 1991).

[2] Kottage, Bernard E., "Stress in the United States: An Emerging Occupational Illness" in *Accident Prevention* (May 1989).



CANADIANS AND RETIREMENT

by Graham S. Lowe

The process of population aging, especially as the baby-boom generation grows older, will be accompanied by changes in how society defines work and retirement. Multiple careers, early retirement, gradual retirement, and post-retirement re-employment are also eroding the conventional practice of working until around age 65 and then abruptly entering the retirement phase of one's life.

STATISTICS CANADA

A minority of Canadians support mandatory retirement. Among these, there is strong support for this age being less than 65. Few Canadians agree with the custom of having employees retire at age 65, and only a small minority themselves plan to retire at age 65 or over.

Although fewer Canadians are working beyond age 65, some may continue to do so out of financial necessity because of inadequate pension income. About one-half of retired Canadians in 1989 received an employer-sponsored pension. That year, 45% of employed paid workers were covered by such a plan.

Pensions represent one means of support in old age. Even the combination of savings, income supplements, private pension benefits and government pensions may not provide an adequate living standard for some elderly people. Although pension reform has been on the public agenda for some time, aging of the baby-boom generation will likely increase pressure for pension reform and for more employers to provide pension benefits.



Most oppose mandatory retirement

According to the 1989 General Social Survey (GSS) conducted by Statistics Canada, about one-third of Canadians 15 years of age or older (7.2 million adults) supported the idea of mandatory retirement in 1989. This varied from about 30% in Alberta, Ontario, and British Columbia to 45% in Manitoba and 56% in Newfoundland.

In general, those with higher levels of education and higher household incomes were less likely to endorse mandatory retirement. Individuals who were retired or keeping house were more likely to support mandatory retirement than were students or the employed. In addition, support for mandatory retirement varied by occupation.

In 1989, workers in manufacturing (46%) and in construction and transportation (41%) were most likely to support mandatory retirement. Those employed in teaching and in sales (24%), artistic and literary jobs (20%), and social sciences (19%), were less likely to support mandatory retirement.

Among employed men, 36% supported mandatory retirement, compared with 30% of employed women. The higher male approval of mandatory retirement was even more pronounced in sales and teaching occupations, where 28% of men and 20% of women supported mandatory retirement.

Among the employed, support for mandatory retirement was higher among individuals with employer-sponsored pension plans (more common in higher status jobs) than among those without employer pension plans. This is likely tied to the common use of age 65 in the calculation of benefits in most pension plans.

Suggested mandatory retirement age among the employed

There was a lack of consensus among respondents to the 1989 GSS regarding the ideal age for mandatory retirement. Among the currently employed who agreed in principle with mandatory retirement, 60% believed that the age should be 64 or less, whereas 37% felt that it should be set at 65. Very few (2%) believed that mandatory retirement should be set beyond age 65.

Opinions of the employed regarding mandatory retirement age varied according to their age. Over 60% of people defined as baby-boomers, aged 25-55, believed that mandatory retirement should be set at an age less than 65, compared with 47% of those aged 15-24 and 43% of those aged 55 and over.

Having a university degree or a high household income was associated with a preferred retirement age of 65, rather than earlier. This seems inconsistent with the socioeconomic patterns of support for mandatory retirement. Early retirement may be a realistic option for the better-educated and more affluent. Indeed, support for mandatory retirement before age 65 is higher among workers with employer pension plans than among those without. Yet, at the same time, the more interesting and challenging nature of their jobs might encourage well-educated, highly-paid individuals to work until age 65.

Support for mandatory retirement varied with a person's retirement plans. Support was greatest among the employed who did not know when they would retire. Among workers who planned to retire at a specific age, support for mandatory retirement at less than age 65 was greatest among those intending to retire between ages 55 and 59. Similarly, support for retirement at age 65 was strongest among those who personally planned to retire at this age.

Retirement plans

Of the currently employed, 43% intended to retire before age 65 and 34% did not know when they would retire. Only about 14% of those currently employed anticipated that they would retire at the conventional retirement age of 65. Very few (1%) wanted to retire after 65, and 7% did not plan to retire.

Retirement expectations

According to data from Statistics Canada's 1991 Survey on Ageing and Independence, 72% of Canadians aged 65 and over believed that their income and investments would be able to satisfy their financial needs either adequately or very well in the future. Among those aged 45 to 64, 67% believed that their future incomes would be adequate, while 21% foresaw income difficulties.

More women than men had no fixed retirement plans (41% compared with 28%). Among those who did have retirement plans, fewer women than men planned to retire between the ages of 55 and 64 (27% compared with 39%). Inadequate pension income among women, resulting in many cases from no private pension income, may contribute to this difference.

Age was also associated with retirement plans. Older employees were more likely than their younger counterparts to have chosen an age to retire, and those aged 55 and over were most likely to plan to retire at age 65, or not at all. Retiring before age 65 was a preference expressed by almost half of those aged 25-44.

Employees in clerical, sales, and service occupations, occupations dominated by women, were less likely to have retirement plans than were employees in managerial/administrative, science/engineering, and teaching jobs. Relatively fewer employees in primary industries stated a retirement age than did respondents in manufacturing/processing, or construction/transportation.

Income was also related to retirement plans. In 1989, 42% of individuals with household incomes of less than $60,000 had no retirement plans, compared with 26% of those in households with incomes of $60,000 or more. Similarly, 55% of individuals in high income households planned early retirement, whereas this was the case for less than one-third of those in lower income households.

Employer-sponsored pension plans were also related to retirement decisions. Over one-half of workers with employer pension plans intended to retire early, compared with just over one-third of those without such pensions.

Pension plans of the currently employed

According to the General Social Survey, about half (52%) of currently employed Canadians had a pension plan provided by their employer in 1989. Pension plans were more common among men (55%) than among women (49%), and varied significantly by occupation. Among those employed in the male dominated professions of science, engineering, and mathematics, as well as those in teaching, 73% had employer pensions, compared with 64% of individuals in medical and health occupations. About one-third of workers in artistic and literary, service, and primary occupations had employer pension plans.

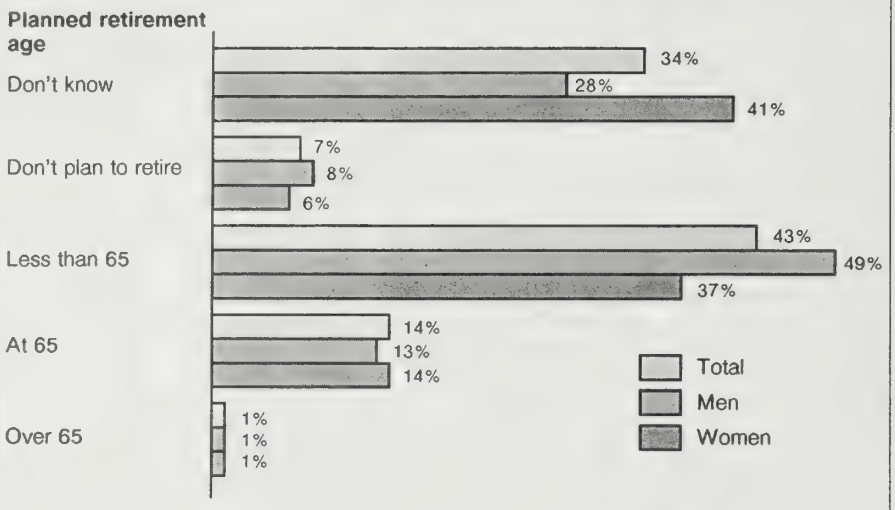
People with a post secondary education are generally more likely to be employed in occupations where employer pension plans are available. In 1989, 63% of those with a university degree were provided a pension plan by their employer, compared with 59% of those whose highest level of education was a post secondary diploma or certificate. Among those whose highest level of education was a

Retirement preparations

According to the 1991 Survey on Ageing and Independence, 50% of Canadians aged 65 and over, and 41% of those aged 45 to 64 who had retired from full-time work had made no active preparation for this event. In contrast, 18% of those aged 65 and over and 20% of those aged 45 to 64 had prepared for six or more years.

SOCIAL TRENDS

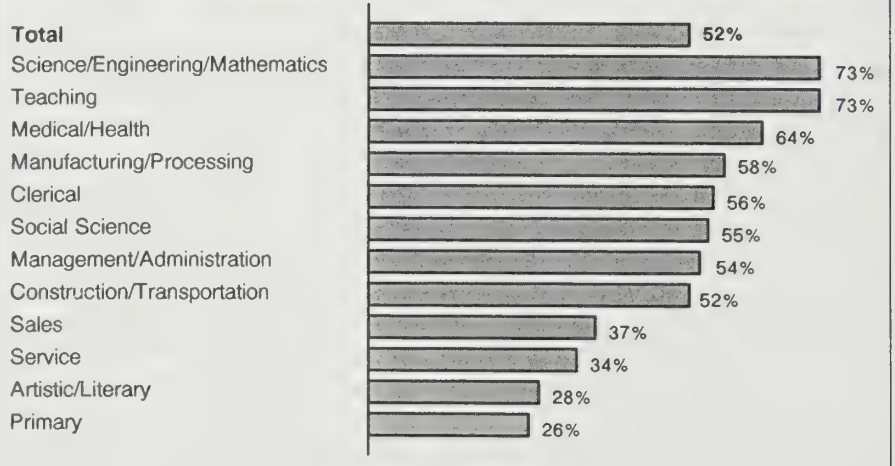
Planned retirement age, employed labour force, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1989.

SOCIAL TRENDS

Employer pension plan, by occupation, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1989.

high school diploma, 50% had employer pension plans as did 42% of those with less than a high school education.

Union membership is one of the strongest correlates of having an employer-sponsored pension. Of union members, 84% were provided pension benefits by their employers, compared with 40% of non-union workers.

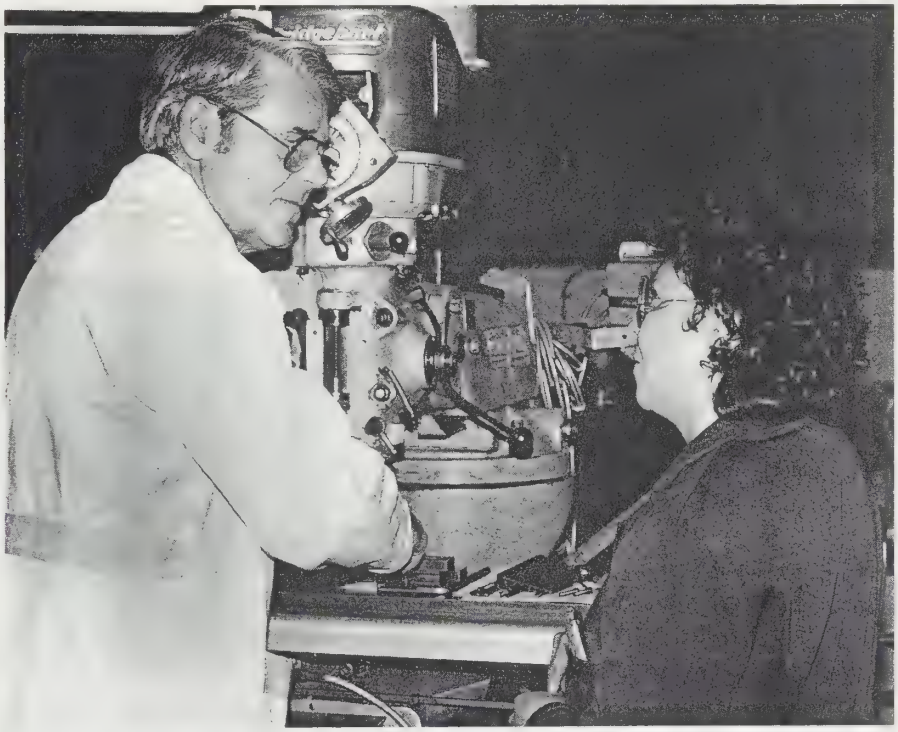
Age at retirement

Almost two-thirds (63%) of retired Canadians had retired before reaching age 65, while 17% had retired at age 65, and 16% after age 65. Women were somewhat more likely than men to retire before age 65 (68% compared with 62%).

Retirement age varies little by type of former occupation. However, occupation-specific retirement patterns are evident according to gender. Relatively fewer men formerly employed in clerical, sales or service jobs (43%) had retired before age 65, compared with 64% of men in managerial/professional or blue-collar occupations. The opposite occured among women, where 70% of those formerly employed in clerical, sales or service jobs had retired before age 65, compared with 62% formerly employed in managerial/professional occupations.

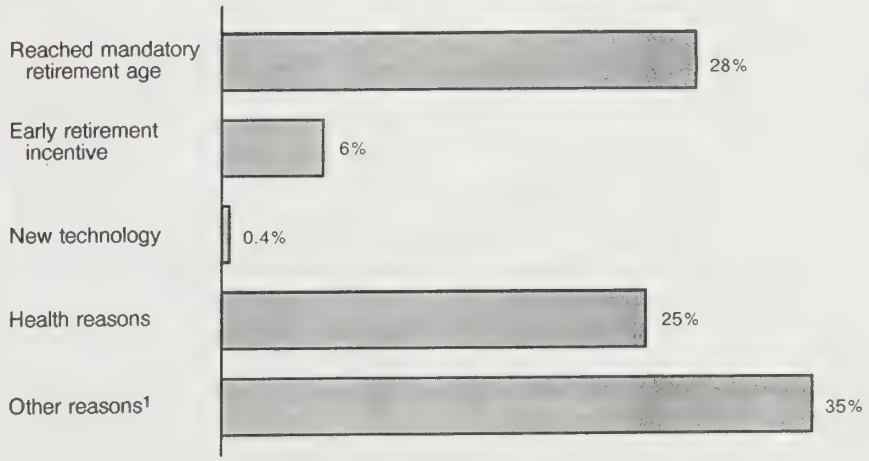
Among those who were retired in 1989, 28% had retired because they had reached mandatory retirement age. Health reasons were cited by 27% of retirees, and early retirement incentives by 7%. Other reasons for retirement such as personal choice, marriage, or family responsibilities were cited by 35% of retired people.

Among retired men, receiving a pension increased the likelihood of retiring before age 65, whereas not receiving a pension or retirement benefits was associated with retiring after age 65. Among women, those with no employer pension benefits were more likely to retire before age 65.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Why people retired



[1] Inlcudes personal choice; marriage or family responsibilities.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1989.

Pensions among the retired

Almost one-half of the currently retired respondents received pension or retirement benefits from a former employer. However, twice the proportion of men (60%) as of women (30%) received pension benefits from a former employer. Lack of access to private pensions is one of the contributing factors to the higher incidence of low income among elderly women.

Former managers and professionals of either gender were the most likely to receive pension benefits (71% of men, 53% of women). A high proportion of men formerly employed in clerical, sales and service occupations received pensions (67%). In contrast, among women who formerly had been employed in these same occupations, only 21% received pensions.

Overall, 58% of retirees receiving pensions had their benefits at least partially indexed to the rate of inflation. Women receiving pensions were more likely to have their benefits adjusted to the cost of living than were men (65% compared with 56%). One possible explanation is that proportionally more women than men receiving pension benefits formerly had been employed in the public sector, where indexed pensions are common.

Graham S. Lowe *is a Professor with the Department of Sociology, University of Alberta.*

READING SKILLS OF THE IMMIGRANT POPULATION

by Monica Boyd

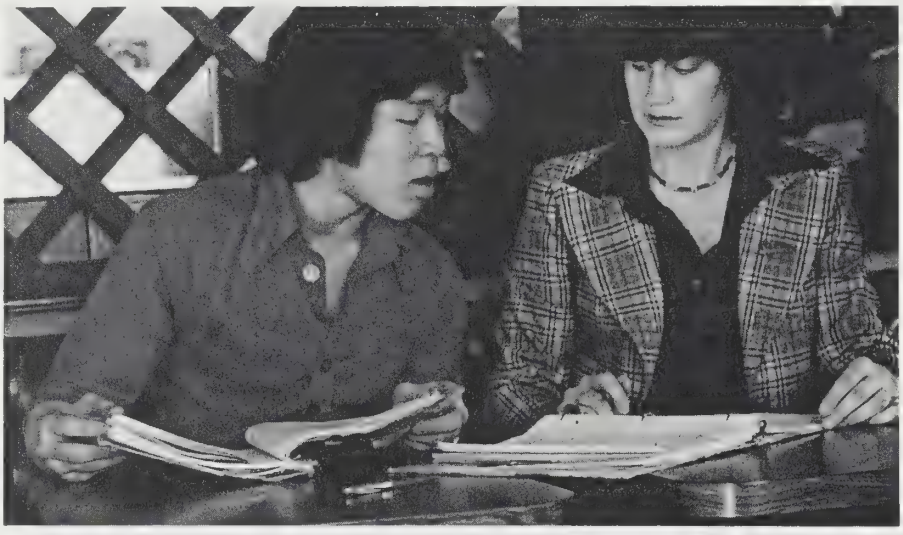
Condensed from Monica Boyd, "Gender, Nativity, and Literacy: Proficiency and Training Issues" Adult Literacy in Canada: Results of a National Study. *Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-525E.*

One out of every six Canadians has immigrated to Canada from his or her country of birth. For most new residents, this transition involves learning about Canadian society, entering the labour force, and interacting with legal, medical, educational, and governmental organizations. The ability to read at least one of Canada's two official languages makes it easier for new settlers to adjust to their surroundings. Literacy promotes the exchange of information and can enhance the economic well-being of immigrant families. Reading skills increase opportunities for labour force participation, influence the type of jobs available to new residents, and, as a result, increase possible employment earnings.

Some immigrants do not have the reading skills in English or French necessary to meet most everyday reading requirements. In Canada, foreign-born women, followed by foreign-born men, are the most likely to have limited reading skills in English or French. Women not born in Canada were also the most likely to indicate that they had experienced limitations at work as a result of limited reading skills. Among foreign-born men and women who have been limited at work because of their literacy skills, the majority indicated that training programs teaching job-related reading and writing skills would be helpful.

Immigrant women most disadvantaged

In 1989, 28% of adults born outside Canada had extreme difficulty reading English or French, attaining level one or two in reading skills. Foreign-born women were particularly disadvantaged, with 32% having



Measuring reading skills

Before 1989, surveys or censuses did not collect direct measures of literacy. In 1989, however, Statistics Canada, in collaboration with the National Literacy Secretariat of Multiculturalism and Citizenship Canada of the Department of the Secretary of State, conducted the Survey of Literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities.

This survey measured literacy skills in English or French among adults aged 16-69. Respondents performed tasks, similar to those encountered during daily life, designed to separately measure reading, numeracy, and writing skills. From the survey results, four reading skill levels were established. Respondents with level one reading skills had the greatest difficulty understanding printed material and were the most likely to identify themselves as not being able to read. Those with level two reading skills could use printed material for limited purposes such as finding a familiar word within a simple text. With level three reading skills, respondents could use printed material in a variety of situations provided that the text was simple and clearly laid out. Those with level four skills could meet most everyday reading requirements.

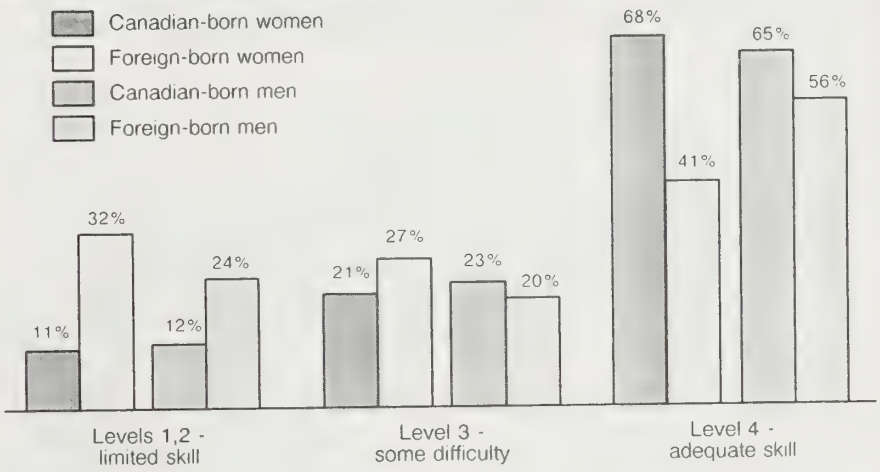
The study, by design, omitted those who could not comprehend dialogue in English or French. The study did not test reading proficiency in languages other than English or French.

difficulty with printed material (levels one and two). Foreign-born men were also disadvantaged (24% with levels one and two) compared to Canadian-born men and women (12% with levels one and two).

Less than one-half (41%) of all women born outside Canada could meet most daily reading demands (level four), compared with 56% of foreign-born men, 65% of Canadian-born men, and 68% of Canadian-born women. Among women born outside Canada and living in cities with populations exceeding 500,000, only 39% had level four reading skills. In contrast, 58% of foreign-born men and 70% of Canadian-born men and women living in large cities had the reading skills necessary to meet most everyday requirements.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Reading skills in English or French, 1989



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-525E.

Barriers for immigrant women

Immigrants bring with them the imprint of their former societies. Gender differences in educational attainment may exist within the foreign-born population if, in certain countries or regions of the world, males have higher educational attainment and literacy levels than females or if males undertake different programs of study. Also, according to academics, advocacy groups, and government advisory boards, foreign-born women are less likely than foreign-born men to become proficient in English or French because of family responsibilities, the financial need for immediate employment, or restricted access to language training programs.

Restricted employment opportunities

Reading skills, associated with knowledge gathering and information processing, are particularly important within an industrial society. These skills are required for most occupations, including those in the growing service sector, such as occupations in finance, business, education, and health. Reading skills also increase workers' access to training and retraining programs, and enhance their ability to adjust to changes within the labour market.

Respondents who worked for at least one week or more in the year preceding the survey were asked if their reading or writing skills in English or French were adequate for their current or previous job, if their reading or writing skills limited job opportunities, and if their reading skills were adequate for other areas of their lives.

Those not born in Canada were more likely than other adults to indicate that they had experienced one or more limitations associated with reading or writing skills. About 60% of foreign-born workers who had extreme difficulty with printed material (levels one and two) indicated that they had experienced one or more types of limitations associated with weak literacy skills.

Job-related literacy programs wanted

People who perceived limitations resulting from their reading and writing skills were asked which of four types of literacy training programs might be useful. Foreign-born respondents preferred a program that would teach job-related reading and writing skills (73%), followed by one

Language training for new immigrants

On January 7, 1992, a new federal language training policy for immigrants was announced. This policy included two programs administered by Employment and Immigration Canada: Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada (LINC) and Labour Market Language Training (LMLT). The new policy is intended to increase the number of language training opportunities available to immigrants; provide immigrants with more flexible training options to fit their individual needs and circumstances; achieve a better match between the training offered and individual needs through improved assessment and referrals; ensure that more immigrants receive timely assistance during the early stages of their settlement in Canada; ensure that more immigrants have access to language training, regardless of their immigrant or labour market status; and incorporate information on Canadian values into language training programs.

Some training arrangements may include child-care and transportation support to facilitate the participation of immigrants, many of whom are women, who would otherwise be unable to pursue training.

Language Instruction for Newcomers (LINC): Through LINC, adult immigrants will learn basic communications skills to enable them to function in society. LINC training will normally be offered during the immigrant's first year in Canada. Approximately 80% of Employment and Immigration Canada's funds for language training are dedicated to this program.

Labour Market Language Training (LMLT): The LMLT program will provide specialized or beyond basic level language training to adult immigrants so that they may effectively use their existing or potential occupational knowledge and skills. LMLT will assist both unemployed and employed immigrants including Canadian citizens.

that would teach everyday reading and writing skills (63%). On the other hand, Canadian-born respondents preferred courses that would provide preparation for a specific job (65%), followed by a program that would help them to continue their formal education (63%).

When asked who should pay for these programs, the majority of both Canadian- and foreign-born respondents felt that the government should provide funding. Support for funding from government was higher among those not born in Canada (68%) than among Canadian-born adults (about 56%).

Responses that favoured government funding of literacy programs did not preclude individual or employer-sponsored financial support. Rather, they were consistent with the variety of existing literacy programs and funding arrangements involving provincial and federal governments.

Conclusion

Efforts to improve literacy skills in Canada may be guided by three major findings. First, compared to Canadian-born adults, foreign-born adults, especially foreign-born women, were more likely to have limited reading skills in English or French. Second, many foreign-born men and women, particularly those with very limited reading skills (levels one and two) have experienced general and job-related restrictions. Third, most foreign-born workers who have experienced limitations in their lives as a result of their reading and writing skills perceive literacy training programs as useful, and would like to have such programs funded by the government.

The survey did not investigate the nature and effectiveness of various existing literacy training methods and programs. However, the findings of the survey were consistent with calls for a combination of program types and a flexible approach to literacy training that would consider user characteristics and preferences. Increasing immigration levels imply that literacy training programs for new residents will become an increasingly necessary and important component of literacy programs.

Monica Boyd *is a Professor with the Department of Sociology, Carleton University.*

THE CURRENT DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS SERIES

On April 22, 1992, the tenth issue of Statistics Canada's **CURRENT DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS** series was released. This issue focuses on "Marriage and Conjugal Life in Canada".

The **CURRENT DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS** series consists of annual and occasional reports devoted to the analysis of major demographic shifts and socioeconomic trends related to population issues. The series provides accurate, quantified information about demographic and socioeconomic phenomena and describes the relationships which exist among the different trends. Discussions of social phenomena in an historical context are emphasized to increase understanding of the links which unite social processes as they evolve.

The **CURRENT DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS** series provides an easily-readable, reliable analysis of demographic trends and includes a wide variety of tables and clear illustrations to support the arguments presented. These reports are oriented toward non-specialists interested in population issues, as well as to social-science students and human-geography or sociology teachers in schools and universities. Demographers and other experts will also appreciate the up-to-date information presented, especially the inclusion of data series, often sparse in more specialized works.

Each issue focuses on an important demographic issue in Canada. The following works have already appeared in the series:

- Fertility in Canada: From Baby-boom to Baby-bust
- Income of Immigrants in Canada: A Census Data Analysis
- Caribbean Immigrants: A Demoeconomic-analysis
- New Trends in the Family: Demographic Facts and Figures

Other issues in progress include:

- The Aging of the Population
- The Evolution of Mortality.

In addition, the **CURRENT DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS** series includes a separate annual "Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada", published each autumn, overviewing the most recent fluctuations in fertility, mortality, migration, and other demographic trends affecting the population of Canada and the provinces.

These reports also include international data, so that trends in Canada can be related to world trends in population dynamics. The latest information from Statistics Canada is complemented with occasional references to data compiled by leading international agencies, such as the United Nations, the Council of Europe, Eurostat, and CELADE. A variety of charts and tables are included, covering chronological series long enough to demonstrate the evolution of the demographic changes discussed. Explanations of common errors made when interpreting demographic data are provided to facilitate understanding of the information.

"The Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada" also contains a section discussing a specific topic in detail, such as the fertility of singles, changes in the linguistic balance, abortion, the consequences of early marriage and pregnancy, or a comparison of evolving demographic trends in Canada and the United States.

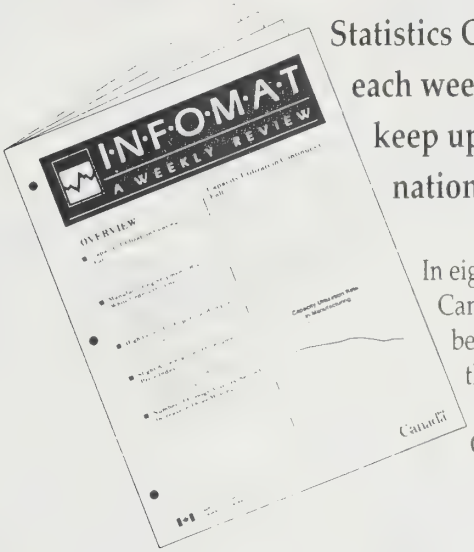
For more information about the **CURRENT DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS** series, contact:

Jean Dumas Chief, Analytical Research Section Demography Division
Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6
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MATURE STUDENTS

by Cynthia Haggar-Guenette

Over the past three decades, an increasing number of Canadians, particularly women, have enroled part-time in postsecondary programs. On average, these students are older than past generations of students, an indication that they may be people returning to school after an absence. A rising proportion of adult Canadians also have been enroling in courses to complete their primary and secondary education or to upgrade job-related skills.

By October 1990, over 700,000 mature students (aged 25-64)[1] were enroled in an educational institution. Over one-half of these students were women, who tended to be older than their male counterparts. Also, most mature students were enroled part-time, and of those, the vast majority were employed.



Characteristics of mature students

By October 1990, about 705,000 Canadians aged 25-64 – 5% of people that age – were attending a recognized educational institution either full- or part-time. This was up from an estimated 378,000 (3% of people aged 25-64) in October 1980.

The majority of mature students in 1990 (477,000) studied part-time and were employed full-time. The remainder were full-time students (227,000), most of whom were not employed (either unemployed or not in the labour force). This distribution remained unchanged since 1980.

Between 1980 and 1990, the proportion of female mature students increased steadily to 60% from 54%. Over the same period, the percentage of male students declined to 40%. These changes resulted from a rising enrolment rate among women aged 25-64 (to 6% from 3%) and a relatively static rate among men that age (3%).

Enrolment rates increased particularly sharply among Canadians aged 40-64. Still, in 1990, two-thirds of all mature students were aged 25-34: close to 40% were 25-29 and 25% were 30-34. About 15% were aged 35-39, and the remaining 20% were aged 40 and over.

Part-time mature students tended to be older than those studying full-time. For example, 71% of part-time students were aged 30 and over, in contrast to 54% of full-time students. Women tended to be older than men. Among part-time mature students, 73% of women and 68% of men were aged 30 and over, and among those enroled full-time, the percentages were 61% and 46%.

Reasons for returning to school

Among mature students, reasons for taking courses varied. Nonetheless, job-related reasons were cited most often by both part- and full-time students, followed by personal or family responsibilities. Job-related reasons included obtaining a new job, upgrading job skills or increasing career advancement opportunities. Many students with relatively low levels of educational attainment probably return to school to upgrade their education, while students with more advanced schooling may more likely be returning to keep abreast of new techniques and innovations in their field.



About the data

Data on part-time and full-time students were collected from the October 1980, 1985 and 1990 Labour Force Survey conducted by Statistics Canada. Educational institutions included public and private primary and secondary schools, vocational and trade schools, community colleges, collèges d'enseignement général et professionnel (CÉGEPS), and universities. Credit courses given by churches and voluntary organizations were included if they were affiliated with a recognized educational institution. Employer-sponsored credit courses given at work were excluded, unless classroom instruction was given in a recognized educational institution.

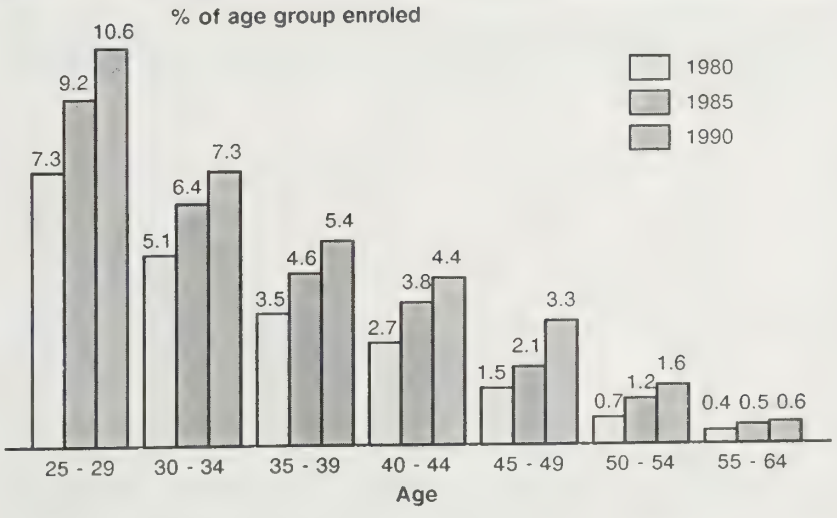
Credit courses included courses toward a certificate, diploma, or degree. These could be correspondence, television, or short professional courses given to practitioners in law, medicine, social work etc. Student nurses and medical interns were included, as were students taking credit courses for personal interest. All non-credit personal interest courses were excluded.

The study of mature students continuing, upgrading or completing their education included all students aged 25-64. Students aged 15-24 were excluded.

Part-time or full-time enrolment status depended on the registration status given by the school, and usually was determined by the number of courses taken. Employed mature students were divided into those employed full- or part-time; those not in the labour force and those unemployed were grouped as people not employed.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Enrolment rates of mature students, by age, 1980-1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, 1980-1990.

[1] In this article, mature students are defined as all students aged 25-64.

Most have postsecondary education

Mature students tend to have much higher levels of educational attainment than Canadians overall. While 70% of mature students had completed at least some postsecondary education, one-half of the population that age had completed only high school.

Among mature students, those studying full-time were more likely than their part-time counterparts to have a university degree. In 1990, 29% of full-time and 24% of part-time mature students had a university degree. More part-time than full-time mature students, however, had completed a non-university postsecondary program. In 1990, 36% of those enroled part-time had completed a community college certificate or diploma program, compared with 25% of full-time students.

More men than women among mature students had a postsecondary degree or diploma. In 1990, this was the case for 63% of men studying part-time and 60% of those studying full-time, whereas the proportions were 58% and 48% for women.

Postsecondary enrolment highest

Not surprisingly, most mature students are enroled in postsecondary institutions. Over time, there has been a steady increase in university enrolment. By 1990, about one-half of all mature students were enroled in universities, while about one-third were enroled in colleges.

Enrolment in community colleges and CEGEPS was more likely to be part-time than full-time, while the reverse was true for university enrolment. In 1990, 40% of part-timers, compared with 35% of those in school full-time were taking college-level courses. In contrast, 40% of part-time mature students were in university, compared with 48% of their full-time counterparts.

In 1990, equal proportions (about 40%) of both male and female part-time mature students and female full-time mature students were enroled in community colleges and in universities. However, male full-time students were much more likely to be in university than in college: 56% compared with 30%.

Enrolment in courses to complete primary or secondary education was much less common, and students in these programs were more likely to be women than men. For example, among those studying part-time in 1990, 13% of women, compared with 8% of men were enroled at this

Profile of mature students, 1990

	Full-time students			Part-time students		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Age						
25-29	54	39	46	32	27	29
30-34	23	25	24	26	24	25
35-39	13	17	15	16	18	17
40-44	6	11	9	13	15	14
45-49	2	5	4	8	10	9
50-54	0	2	2	2	4	3
55-64	1	1	1	2	2	2
Education						
Grade 0-8	3	4	4	2	2	2
Some sec., no postsecondary	16	28	22	21	24	23
Some postsecondary	21	20	20	14	16	16
Postsecondary cert. or diploma	26	24	25	38	35	36
University degree	34	24	29	25	23	24
Enrolled In						
Primary or secondary school	5	10	7	8	13	11
Community college, CEGEP	30	38	35	42	38	40
University	56	41	48	39	40	40
Other	9	11	10	11	9	10
Labour force status						
Employed full-time	16	10	13	86	64	72
Employed part-time	19	22	21	4	15	11
Not working[1]	64	69	67	10	21	17
Total %	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Number	**107,277**	**119,770**	**227,047**	**172,457**	**304,877**	**477,334**

[1] Either unemployed or not in the labour force.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 Labour Force Survey.

level. Comparable figures for full-time mature students were 10% for women and 5% for men.

Part-timers employed full-time

Most part-time mature students are employed, in contrast to a relatively small proportion of those studying full-time. In 1990, 83% of part-time students aged 25-64 were employed: 72%, full-time and 11%, part-time. The remainder were not employed. Only 34% of those studying full-time had a job: 13% were employed full-time and 21%, part-time.

Levels of educational attainment varied considerably by employment status. Among mature students, those employed full-time tended to have the highest level of education, while those not employed had the lowest. In 1990, 48% of male and 26% of female part-time mature students employed full-time had a university degree, compared with just under 20% of both male and female students not employed. Similarly, among full-time mature students, 48% of male and 37% of female full-time workers had graduated from university, compared with about 12% of those not employed.

Occupations

Occupations of employed mature students varied by enrolment status. Among full-time students, men and women were clustered in a few occupations, while among part-time students, gender differences were more apparent.

Most full-time mature students were employed in teaching, clerical and service occupations. Among full-time students in 1990, 53% of men and 57% of women were employed in these occupations. Women were also clustered in occupations in medicine (15%), while men were more evenly distributed among the remaining occupations.

Most women in part-time studies were in clerical (32%), managerial or administrative (18%), teaching (16%), or medicine (11%) occupations. Comparable men were employed in managerial or administrative (21%), natural science (13%), fabricating (10%), or sales (9%) and service (9%) occupations.

Conclusion

As the structure of the labour market changes, requiring higher skill levels among workers, it is not surprising that more Canadians enrol in courses to upgrade their education.

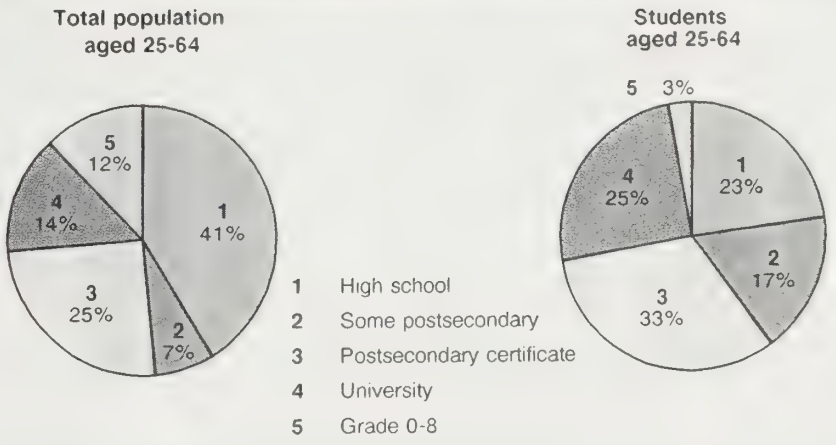
Part-time students, most of whom are employed full-time, are generally older students who have completed college certificates and diplomas. Many are likely returning to school to upgrade or learn new skills to increase job opportunities.

On the other hand, full-time students are mainly young men and women. Most are not employed and likely are continuing their schooling full-time to obtain an initial certificate or degree, or to finish graduate studies before looking for work. These students may have fewer personal or family responsibilities and may be supported financially by parents, summer jobs, grants or spouses who work.

Cynthia Haggar-Guenette *is an analyst with Labour Division.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Highest educational level of total population and mature students aged 25-64, 1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, 1990.

Selected occupations of mature students, 1990

	Full-time students		Part-time students	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
		%		
Managerial, Administrative	7	5	21	18
Natural Sciences	6	1	13	2
Teaching	30	24	6	16
Medicine	2	15	4	11
Clerical	10	18	5	32
Sales	5	9	9	4
Service	13	15	9	8
Fabricating	7	-	10	1
Construction	4	-	7	-
Total Number	**38,188**	**37,325**	**155,915**	**239,673**

Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 Labour Force Survey.

E-STAT: An Electronic Learning Package for Canadian Schools

E-STAT is a data package with graphing and mapping capabilities, developed by Statistics Canada to enable students to track a broad range of statistical data trends. E-STAT is currently being tested in 58 schools across Canada, and following fine-tuning, will be available for the 1992-93 school year.

E-STAT displays data from the Census and CANSIM, a comprehensive electronic time series data base on prices, labour, national accounts, manufacturing, finance, trade, agriculture, etc. Selected demographic and social data such as population estimates and vital statistics are also included.

E-STAT uses software to graphically display CANSIM data and map Census data. It gives students the opportunity to have hands-on experience in information retrieval and data manipulation, while at the same time helping to teach problem-solving techniques.

Designed for use on a personal computer with CD-ROM technology, this user-friendly package provides search and display capabilities for accessing both the Statistics Canada: CANSIM Disc (with approximately 250,000 time series), and the 1986 Census CD-ROM (with 414 census variables for many census geographic areas). A mapping capability for display of census data is included, in addition to a number of graphics options for displaying time series data. Also, lists of related data series for specific teacher lesson plans (such as cultural diversity, family studies, and international trade) are provided.

E-STAT can be used to support data analysis and enquiry related to themes explored in **Canadian Social Trends**. For example, background data used in the article "Canadians and Retirement" (CST, Autumn 1992) can be accessed through E-STAT to examine the impact of varying ages of retirement on the size of the retired population. As well, using the mapping capability of E-STAT, one can quickly see the proportion of seniors in each province.

An IBM or 100% IBM compatible personal computer, a colour monitor with EGA card or higher, a CD-ROM player, a mouse, and MS-DOS with CD-ROM extensions are required to use the E-STAT package.

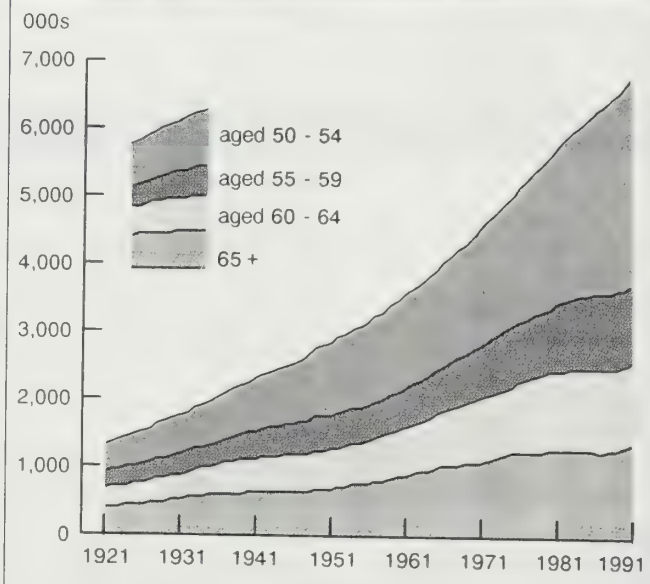
To obtain further information about the package, contact: the Statistics Canada Regional Office nearest you, or Joel Yan, Yves Dupuis, Ruth Kelly, Johanne Chénier, Electronic Data Dissemination Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6, telephone: (613) 951-8200 or 1-800-465-1222, facsimile: (613) 951-1134.

Percentage aged 65 and over, Canada, 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census.

Population by age, Canada, 1921-1991



Source: Statistics Canada, CANSIM.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,240.3	26,610.4	27,000.4[pr]
Annual growth (%)	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5[pr]
Immigration[1]	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,527	219,480[r]
Emigration[1]	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	39,649	39,233[pr]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	15.3	15.1[r]
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.1	7.2[r]
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	2.9	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	1,039	990	915	872	789	776	841	1,417
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572	12,340
- goods sector (000s)	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626	3,423
- services sector (000s)	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946	8,917
Total unemployment (000s)	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109	1,417
Unemployment rate (%)	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.3
Part-time employment (%)	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4	16.4
Women's participation rate (%)	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4	58.2
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	34.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	46,069	*
% of families with low income (1986 Base)	15.6	14.3	13.6	13.1	12.2	11.1	12.1	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	67.6	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,083.9	5,149.3[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.9	832.3	856.3	887.0[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,672	2,947
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.5	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease - men	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	37.3	*
- women	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	41.2	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	27.8	*
- women	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	26.8	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.8	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	714	749	808	856	898	948	1,013	1,097
- property	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,844	6,368
- homicide	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	3.0[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1990 $000,000)	151,003.3	155,990.6	157,737.2	160,670.7	164,293.2	170,125.0	175,640.0	*
- as a % of total expenditures	55.6	55.8	56.4	56.1	56.2	56.2	56.7	*
- as a % of GDP	26.2	26.2	26.1	25.5	24.7	25.0	26.3	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+5.0	+2.3	−0.5	−1.7
Annual inflation rate (%)	4.4	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6
Urban housing starts	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary data [m] Figures as of March. [pr] Updated postcensal estimates [r] Updated data.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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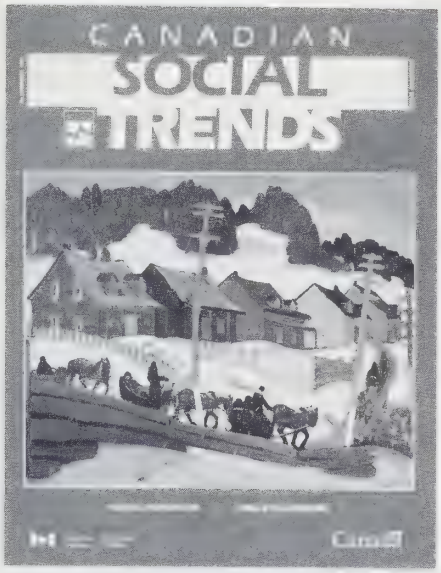
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Cover: Sunday in the Country (1927) oil on canvas, 69.2 x 84.6 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the Artist:

Albert H. Robinson (1881-1956) was born in Hamilton, Ontario. While working as an illustrator for the Hamilton Times, he studied at the Hamilton Art School; he later went to Paris and for the first year studied at the Academie Julian under Bouguereau and Baschet, producing sufficiently high level of work to gain entry into the Ecole des Beaux-Arts to study drawing under Gabriel Ferrier. He returned to Canada and taught life drawing at the Hamilton Art School, before moving to Montreal. There, he painted several scenes at the harbour, docks, grain elevators and boats, as well as in villages along the St. Lawrence. He is well remembered for his use of subtle and distinguished colours.



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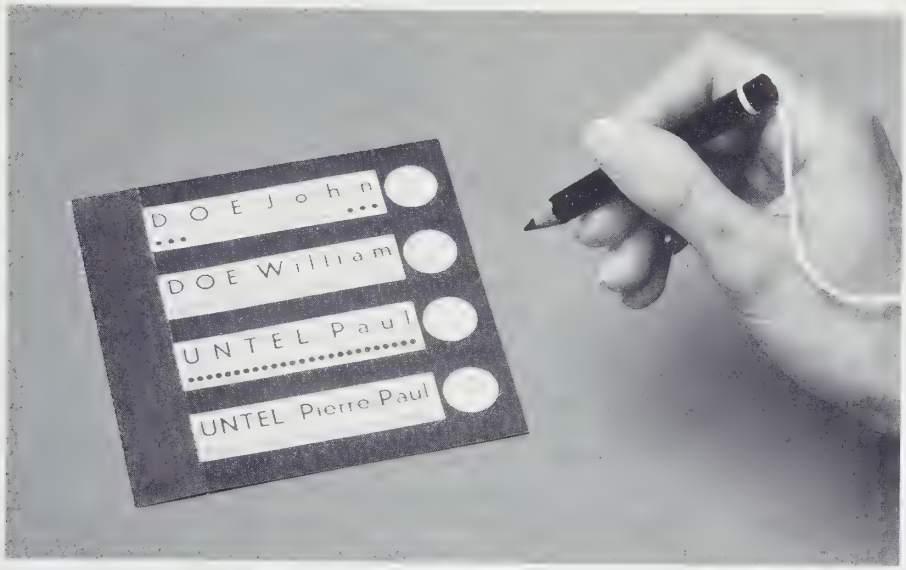
VOTING AND CONTRIBUTING: POLITICAL PARTICIPATION IN CANADA

by Jeffrey Frank



In Canada, federal general elections are held at least every five years. Elections today take place under different conditions from those in earlier times. Increased campaign spending, the use of television and advertising, and the proliferation of public opinion polls have profoundly altered the environment in which Canadians exercise their democratic right to vote. In the future, technological developments may further alter the federal electoral landscape. For example, "tele-democracy" (voting by telephone, as was done in the 1992 Nova Scotia Liberal Party leadership convention) may be just around the corner.

Despite these changes, the level of voter participation has remained quite stable: about three-quarters of eligible adults have voted in federal elections since Confederation. What has changed is the proportion of adult Canadians eligible to vote. With the right to vote extended to women in 1918 and to other groups more recently, over 90% of adult Canadians have been included on federal voting lists since 1972, compared with less than 40% before 1918.



Although a broad cross-section of Canadians voted in federal elections, only 1% of all tax-filers claimed a financial contribution to federal political parties or candidates in the 1984 and 1988 election years. Those who reported contributions tended to be men, to be older, and to have higher personal incomes. In addition, tax-filers residing in Western Canada were more likely than those in other regions to report making federal political contributions.

The right to vote

Canada is said to have universal suffrage, where all adult citizens have the right to vote. However, some groups attained this right only recently and others do not have a federal franchise (the right to vote).

Most Canadian citizens aged 18 and over are qualified to vote in federal elections. Those who until recently could not vote included judges, inmates of penal institutions, and people institutionalized

Plebiscites and referendums

On occasion, the electorate can make its opinion known on a specific public issue through a plebiscite or referendum. Plebiscites are consultative and governments are not bound by their results. Referendums, on the other hand, can be binding or non-binding. Single-issue votes have been held federally on only three occasions in Canada's history, although such votes have also been held at the provincial level. In 1898, the federal government under Sir Wilfrid Laurier held a plebiscite on alcohol prohibition. Only 44% of eligible voters cast ballots on the issue. Then, in 1942, Mackenzie King's wartime government asked Canadians to approve a reversal of its "no conscription" election promise through a plebiscite. Voter turnout was 71%. Finally, on October 26, 1992, Canadians were asked to vote (in a non-binding referendum) on a package of constitutional reforms based on the Charlottetown accord. In the 1992 referendum, 75% of eligible voters exercised their right to vote.

Parliamentary government

Canada is a parliamentary democracy consisting of one federal, ten provincial and two territorial governments. At the federal level, adult Canadians directly elect members to the House of Commons to make decisions and enact laws on matters that fall within federal jurisdiction. The Senate, the upper house of the federal government, is presently an appointed body with limited powers.

The Canadian Constitution sets the maximum duration of a parliament at five years. It is unusual, however, for a parliament to last its full term. The Prime Minister normally requests that the Governor General dissolve parliament and call an election after four to four-and-a-half years.

For the purpose of electing members to the House of Commons, Canada is divided into 295 electoral districts (also known as ridings or constituencies). Electoral districts are periodically redistributed on the basis of census population data in accordance with the *Electoral Boundaries Readjustment Act*.

Electoral legislation and reform

The *Canada Elections Act* sets out the rules and procedures for federal elections in Canada. The Act assigns responsibility for the electoral process to an impartial Chief Electoral Officer, supported by a staff at Elections Canada. The Chief Electoral Officer is responsible for the administrative machinery that supports the electoral process and for ensuring that all qualified voters have the opportunity to vote. The 1974 *Election Expenses Act* restricts amounts that candidates and parties can spend on certain types of expenses; the *Canada Elections Act* establishes precise contribution and expense reporting requirements.

The Royal Commission on Electoral Reform and Party Financing was appointed in November, 1989. Its mandate was to inquire into and report on the appropriate principles, process and rules that should govern the election of Members to the House of Commons and the financing of political parties and candidates' campaigns. The Commission held nation-wide public hearings and sponsored more than 100 comprehensive background research studies, the results of which are available in 23 published volumes.

In early 1992, the Commission tabled its four-volume report, entitled *Reforming Electoral Democracy*, in the House of Commons. The report contained recommendations organized around six major objectives for electoral reform: to secure the democratic rights of voters; to enhance access to elected office; to promote the equality and efficacy of the vote; to strengthen political parties as primary political organizations; to promote fairness in the electoral process; and to enhance public confidence in the integrity of the electoral process. The government has referred the report to the Special Committee on Electoral Reform.

or deprived of the management of their property by reason of mental disability. The right to vote was extended to these groups through court challenges under the *Charter of Rights and Freedoms*. Today, the Chief and Assistant Chief Electoral Officers, returning officers, non-citizens and minors are the only people disqualified from voting in federal elections.

The extension of suffrage combined with improvements in the enumeration process have resulted in substantial increases in the proportion of Canadians aged 18 or older qualified to vote in federal elections. In the 1988 election year, 17.6 million Canadians (91% of adults) were electors (eligible voters). Prior to 1918, less than 40% of adult Canadians had been eligible to vote. By the 1921 election, when all adult women had the franchise, the proportion jumped to 84%, and remained about the same until the 1972 election. Since then, consistently over 90% of Canadians aged 18 and older have been included on federal voting lists.

The history of provincial suffrage varies considerably by jurisdiction. In Quebec, for example, women did not win the right to vote provincially until 1940. And in British Columbia, it was not until 1953 that all references to race were deleted from the provincial electoral legislation.

Voting

Voter turnout in Canadian federal elections has remained quite stable since Confederation. For example, 75% of eligible adults voted in the 1988 federal general election, compared with 73% in the first election of 1868. Over the three elections in the 1920s, voter turnout fell somewhat, reaching a low of 66% in the 1925 election. Participation peaked during the three elections held in 1958, 1962 and 1963, when 79% of electors voted.

Although federal voter turnout varies by province, rates within provinces have been relatively constant in recent elections. In 1988, for example, a high proportion of electors voted in Prince Edward Island (85%) and British Columbia (79%). The lowest turnout occurred in Newfoundland (67%) and the Northwest Territories (71%).

Studies[1] of voting behaviour in Canada indicate that voters are generally older and more educated than non-voters, have higher family incomes, and are more likely to be married, to be employed, and to belong to one of the major religions.

Average voter turnout in provincial and territorial elections during the 1980s generally was about the same as or higher than voter turnout in federal elections over the same period. Exceptions included Alberta (56%) and Ontario (61%) where the percentages of eligible voters exercising their franchise in provincial elections was considerably lower than in federal elections.

International perspective

Compared to the United States, where an average of 54% of eligible adults voted in federal elections during the 1980s, Canada's average turnout was quite high (73%). Voter turnout in Canada, however, was not as high as that in other democracies. According to research conducted for the Royal Commission on Electoral Reform and Party Financing, Canada ranked 28th out of 33 democracies in voter turnout rates during the 1980s. However, several countries with higher voter turnout rates, such as Australia, Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg, Greece and Costa Rica, have compulsory voting rules subjecting non-voters to penalties under the law.

Federal political contributions

The Federal Political Contribution Tax Credit is available to individual tax-filers and organizations (including businesses) who contribute to registered federal political parties or to candidates for election to the House of Commons. To be eligible for the credit, contributions must be supported by official receipts. Of a single contribution, 75% of the first $100, 50% of the next $450, and 33 1/3% of the remainder is eligible, up to a maximum

Chronology of federal suffrage in Canada

1868 — The first federal general election was held; only men who owned a specified amount of property were allowed to vote.

1885 — The *Electoral Franchise Act* defined a "person" as a male, excluding a person of Mongolian or Chinese race.

1917 — The *Wartime Election Act* disfranchised Canadian citizens who were born in an enemy country and were naturalized after March 31, 1902, as well as those whose "mother tongue" was the language of an enemy country, regardless of country of birth.

1917 — Wives, sisters and mothers of servicemen won the franchise.

1918 — All adult women won the right to vote.

1948 — The franchise was extended to Canadians of Japanese ancestry.

1950 — The Inuit, explicitly excluded in the 1934 *Dominion Franchise Act*, became eligible to vote.

1960 — The *Indian Act* was amended to extend the franchise to Native Canadians living on reserves.

1987 — Judges became eligible to vote.

1988 — People with mental disabilities were granted the franchise.

1992 — Voting rights were extended to prison inmates.

Average voter turnout in provincial/territorial elections, 1980s

	%
Saskatchewan	83
New Brunswick	82
Prince Edward Island	82
Newfoundland	79
Yukon Territory	78
British Columbia	77
Nova Scotia	76
Quebec	76
Manitoba	71
Northwest Territories	71
Ontario	61
Alberta	56

Source: Provincial and Territorial Election Offices.

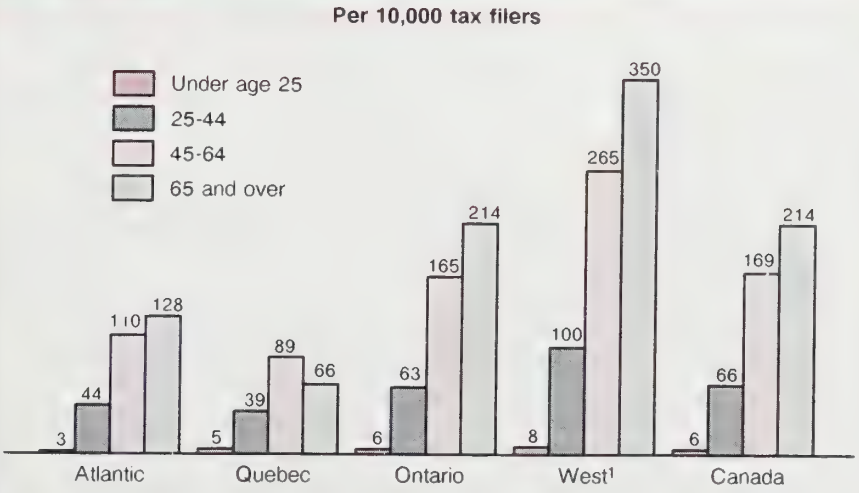
Voter turnout in Canada and 32 other democracies, 1980s

Rank		Average voter turnout, 1980s	Rank		Average voter turnout, 1980s
		%			%
1	Australia	94[1]	18	Israel	79
2	Belgium	94[1]	19	Costa Rica	79[1]
3	Austria	92	20	Finland	78
4	Bahamas	91	21	Barbados	77
5	New Zealand	91	22	Jamaica	77
6	Italy	90[1]	23	Portugal	77
7	Iceland	89	24	Botswana	76
8	Sweden	89	25	Ireland	74
9	Luxembourg	88[1]	26	United Kingdom	74
10	Germany	87	27	Spain	73
11	France	86	**28**	**Canada**	**73**
12	Denmark	86	29	Japan	71
13	Venezuela	84	30	India	62
14	Netherlands	83	31	Trinidad and Tobago	59
15	Norway	83			
16	Greece	82[1]	32	United States	54
17	Mauritius	80	33	Switzerland	48

[1] Compulsory voting.
Source: Black, J.H. Royal Commission on Electoral Reform and Party Financing, 1991.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Federal political contributors, by age and region, 1988 election year



[1] Includes the Yukon and Northwest Territories.
Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division, unpublished data.

allowable tax credit of $500. Therefore, only the first $1,150 contributed results in a tax benefit.

It is not surprising that contributions to federal political parties and election candidates increase markedly during election years. Factors affecting contribution activity around election time include heightened public awareness, increased fund-raising activity, and campaigns supporting independent candidates. Between 1982 and 1990, average and total contributions, as well as the number of contributors, peaked during the 1984 and 1988 election years.

In 1988, individuals reported $36 million[2] in federal political contributions, up 20% from $30 million in 1984. The number of contributors reached 177,000 in 1988, up 15% from 154,000 in 1984. Over this period, however, the proportion of all tax-filers reporting federal political contributions remained stable at about 1%.

In the 1988 election year, Ontario tax-filers contributed 39% ($14 million) of the $36 million contributed nationally, while those in the Western provinces and the two territories contributed 38% ($13.7 million). Tax-filers in Quebec accounted for 17% ($6.1 million) and those in the Atlantic provinces for 6% ($2.2 million) of total contributions. This distribution of contributors differs somewhat from Canada's population distribution. In 1991, 37% of Canadians lived in Ontario, 29% in the West, 25% in Quebec and 9% in the Atlantic provinces.

Profile of contributors

According to taxation data, tax-filers with high incomes are more likely than others to make federal political contributions. Since income tends to increase with age, and because men generally earn more than women, it is not surprising that senior men are the most likely to report donations to political parties or candidates.

In the 1988 election year, men accounted for 73% of contributors and 77% of the total amount contributed. Also, the average contribution for men ($213) was larger than that for women ($171). Among tax-filers, men (1.4%) were more than twice as likely as women (0.6%) to contribute. The relationship between gender and contributions was most

[1] See, for example, Munroe Eagles, "Voting and Non-voting in Canadian Federal Elections: An Ecological Analysis", in Herman Bakvis (ed.), *Voter Turnout in Canada*, Toronto: Dundurn Press, 1991.

[2] All dollar figures in this article are reported in constant 1991 dollars.

obvious in Quebec, where men were four times more likely than women to have contributed.

It is possible that men may claim contributions made by their spouses. A couple seeking to maximize their Federal Political Contribution Tax Credit, however, would make two separate claims, provided that both spouses had taxable income and the combined contribution was over $100.

Almost three-quarters of contributors were aged 45-64 (41%) or 25-44 (31%). However, the tendency to contribute financially to federal parties increased with age. Overall, 214 of every 10,000 tax-filers aged 65 and older reported federal political contributions, compared with just 6 of every 10,000 tax-filers under age 25. Only in Quebec were tax-filers aged 65 and older less likely to contribute than those aged 45-64.

Tax-filers with high personal incomes were most likely to contribute. Certainly, those who have the discretionary income to make a contribution are in the best position to take advantage of the Federal Political Contribution Tax Credit. Among those who reported making federal political contributions in 1988, 35% had personal incomes of $50,000 or more. In contrast, only 7% of tax-filers had incomes this high. At the same time, of contributors to federal parties, 39% had incomes of $25,000 to $49,999, and 26% had incomes less than $25,000.

In 1988, 830 of every 10,000 tax-filers with incomes of $75,000 or more contributed, compared with just 42 of every 10,000 tax-filers with incomes less than $25,000. Regionally, the relationship between income and the likelihood to contribute was most pronounced in Atlantic and Western Canada, and least evident in Quebec.

By a large margin, tax-filers living in the Western provinces (including the two territories) were most likely to claim financial contributions to federal parties or election candidates (160 contributors for every 10,000 tax-filers). In Ontario and the Atlantic provinces, 99 and 62 of every 10,000 tax-filers contributed, respectively. Those living in Quebec were least likely to claim federal political contributions (49 contributors for every 10,000 tax-filers).

Contributions to federal parties

According to Elections Canada data, contributions to federal political parties (from all sources) have increased considerably since 1975. In 1991, federal parties raised $45 million, up 116% from $20.8 million in 1975. In 1988, the most recent election year, federal parties received $65.5 million in contributions, a 68% increase from $39 million in the 1979 election year.

Jeffrey Frank *is an analyst with* Canadian Social Trends.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

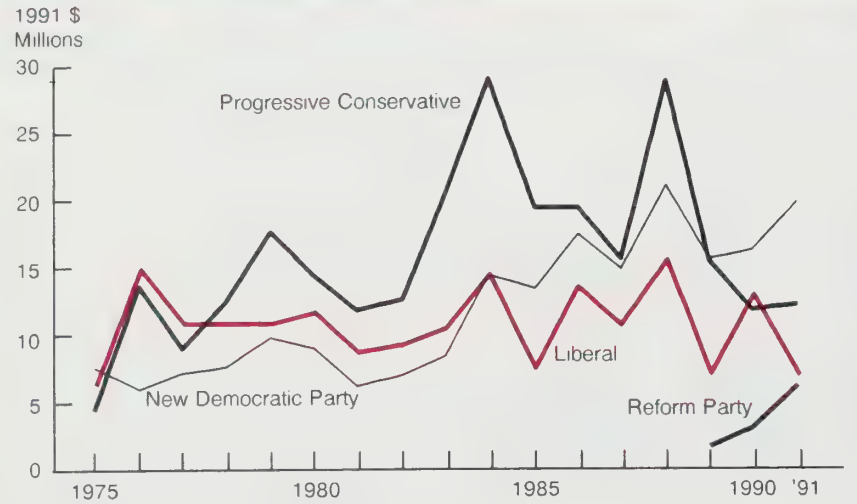
Federal political contributors, by income and region, 1988 election year



1 Includes the Yukon and Northwest Territories.
Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division, unpublished data.

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Contributions[1] to selected federal political parties, 1975-1991



1 From all sources, constant 1991 dollars.
Source: Elections Canada.

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SLEEP PROBLEMS: WHOM DO THEY AFFECT?

by Heather Tait



For many, a good night's sleep is taken for granted. However, according to the 1991 General Social Survey (GSS), one in five Canadians reported often having problems going to sleep or staying asleep, non-refreshing sleep and difficulties staying awake when they wanted to. Such problems were particularly prevalent among women (especially lone mothers), elderly people, those looking for work and shift workers.

Underlying factors often are stress-related, stemming from problems associated with low income, pain and health. However, results of research on the relationship between sleep loss, stress and problems related to health are mixed. Some studies indicate that after being deprived of sleep for long periods, people may experience hallucinations and paranoia, although these symptoms disappear once normal sleeps is resumed. Others indicate that undersleeping, as well as oversleeping, may negatively affect overall life expectancy.

Sleep problems

According to the 1991 GSS, most Canadians do not generally have troubles sleeping. However, that year, 24% of adults had problems going to sleep or staying asleep. The incidence of such difficulties was particularly high among people with stressful lives, low incomes, physical pain or health problems. For example, in 1991, of people reporting very stressful lives, 38% had problems sleeping. At the same time, 37% of people with low incomes[1] reported trouble falling asleep or staying asleep, compared with 18% of those with high incomes. Similarly, 44% of people with pain or discomfort had problems sleeping, whereas this was the case for 19% of adults without pain. Finally, 29% of people with at least one health problem reported sleep difficulties, compared with 14% of people without health problems.

Gender differences

Men and women reported sleeping about the same amount of time nightly (7.4 and 7.3 hours on average, respectively). However, more women than men had sleep-related problems. In 1991, 28% of women, compared with 19% of men, stated that they found it difficult to get to sleep or stay asleep.

The General Social Survey

Statistics Canada's 1991 General Social Survey focused on the health of Canadians aged 15 and over. Three questions designed to explore the relationship between sleep and health were included in the survey:

1. Do you regularly have trouble going to sleep or staying asleep? (yes or no)
2. How often do you find your sleep refreshing? (most times, sometimes or never)
3. How often do you find it difficult to stay awake when you want to? (most times, sometimes or never)

The responses to these questions generally led to similar conclusions. Therefore, this article focuses on the results of the answers to the first question.

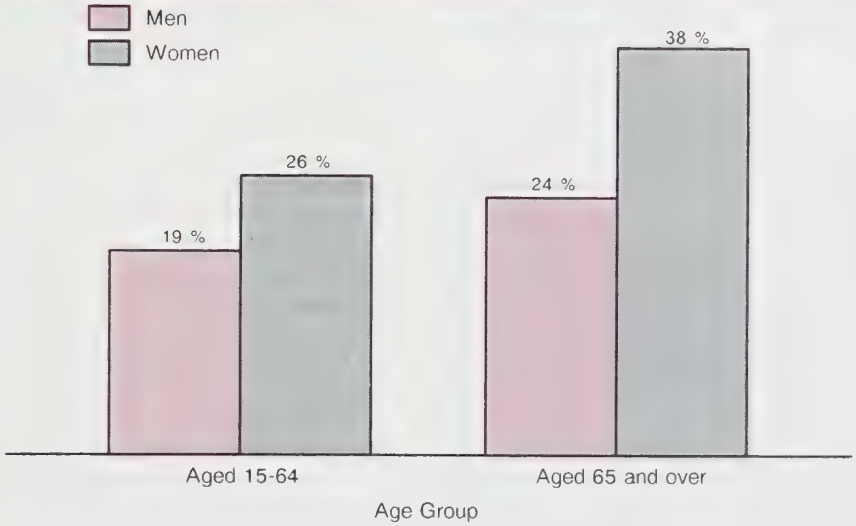
[1] The low-income thresholds used in this article are based on those used in the 1990 Health Promotion Survey. They are generally similar to Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, although some minor differences exist.

Among women, homemakers with children aged 18 and under were more likely than mothers working outside the home to report trouble falling asleep or staying asleep: 26% compared with 20%. However, the incidence of poor quality sleep among mothers employed full-or part-time did not differ. About 20% of each group reported trouble going to sleep or staying asleep.

Factors likely associated with sleep problems, such as the incidence of low income, pain and health problems are more common among women than men. For example, in 1991, 14% of women had low incomes, compared with 9% of men. Women with low incomes were twice as likely as those with the highest incomes to report problems getting to sleep or staying asleep (41% versus 20%). Also in 1991, 22% of women, compared with 17% of men, reported experiencing pain or discomfort. In addition, women aged 15-64 (62%) and those aged 65 and over (88%) were more likely than men in these age groups (56% and 83%, respectively) to report having at least one health problem.

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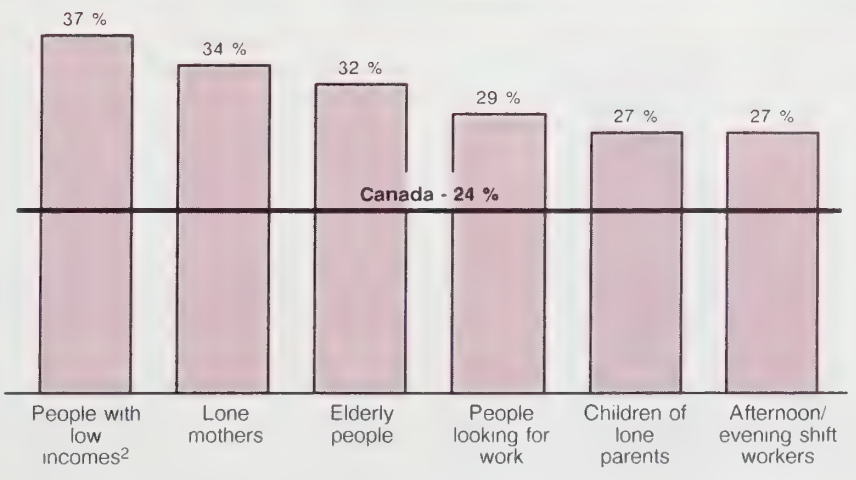
People reporting sleep problems[1], by age and gender, 1991



[1] Includes those reporting regularly having trouble going to sleep or staying asleep.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

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Selected groups reporting sleep problems[1], 1991



[1] Includes those reporting regularly having trouble going to sleep or staying asleep.
[2] Low-income thresholds based on those used in the 1990 Health Promotion Survey.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

Lone parents and their children

Both mothers and children in lone-parent families reported having relatively less sleep, as well as more sleep problems, than mothers and children in two-parent families. In 1991, 33% of lone mothers aged 15-64 with children under age 25 averaged less than 7 hours sleep each night, compared with 24% of women living with a spouse and children. At the same time, 34% of lone mothers had trouble getting to sleep or staying asleep, compared with 22% of mothers living with a spouse. Similarly, 27% of children aged 15-24 living in lone-parent families, compared with 18% of those in two-parent families, reported troubles sleeping.

Problems related to difficulties sleeping were generally more prevalent among families headed by a lone mother than among other women. For example, in 1991, 16% of lone mothers reported very stressful lives, compared with 8% of women living with a spouse and children. In addition, 39% of lone-parent families headed by a woman had low incomes, compared with 9% of two-parent families. At the same time, more mothers and children in lone-parent families experience pain and health problems than do those in other families. In 1991, 24% of lone mothers, compared with 17% of other mothers, reported the presence of pain or discomfort. At the same time, 17% of children from lone-parent families, in contrast to 10% of other children, experienced pain. Also that year, 66% of lone mothers had at least one health problem, while this was the case for 60% of other mothers. Children from lone-parent families were much more likely than those living with both parents to have at least one health problem: 56% compared with 9%.

Elderly people

Seniors and people aged 15-64 reported sleeping about the same amount of time, on average, each night. However, with increasing age, people were more likely to report fitful sleep. In 1991, 22% of people aged 15-64 had trouble going to sleep or staying asleep. This contrasts with almost one-third (32%) of people aged 65 and over, and 40% of those aged 80 and over.

The higher incidence of low income, physical pain and health problems among seniors than among other adults likely contributes to the difference in reported trouble sleeping. For example, in 1991, 22% of people aged 65 and over reported

low incomes, compared with 9% of other adults. That year, 40% of seniors with low incomes reported problematic sleep.

Also in 1991, 31% of seniors reported the presence of pain, in contrast to 18% of people aged 15-64. Of all seniors reporting pain, 49% had trouble getting to sleep versus 25% of those without pain. In addition, 86% of seniors reported at least one health-related problem, in contrast to 59% of people aged 15-64. Among seniors with a health problem, 34% reported sleep problems, compared with 17% of those without a health problem.

Sleep and accidents

Accidents can often be attributed to human error. Sleepiness is frequently a major contributor to lower levels of alertness that can result in this type of error. Most people experience two periods during which alertness drops and the urge to sleep is at its' strongest. The most significant of these is from 2:00 to 7:00, while the second falls between 14:00 and 17:00. These are also peak automobile accident times.

Transport Canada estimates that 13% of all fatal injuries due to traffic accidents occur between 2:00 and 7:00 — a period of time when road traffic is especially light. They also estimate that 20% of all drivers have fallen asleep at the wheel at least once. According to figures from the United States, in 1988, approximately 13% of deaths (60,500) resulting from automobile accidents were sleep-related.

Several large-scale disasters have also occurred during the 2:00 to 7:00 drowsiness period. Two of the most widely known are the 3 Mile Island and Chernobyl catastrophes. Human error was a key factor in both of these.

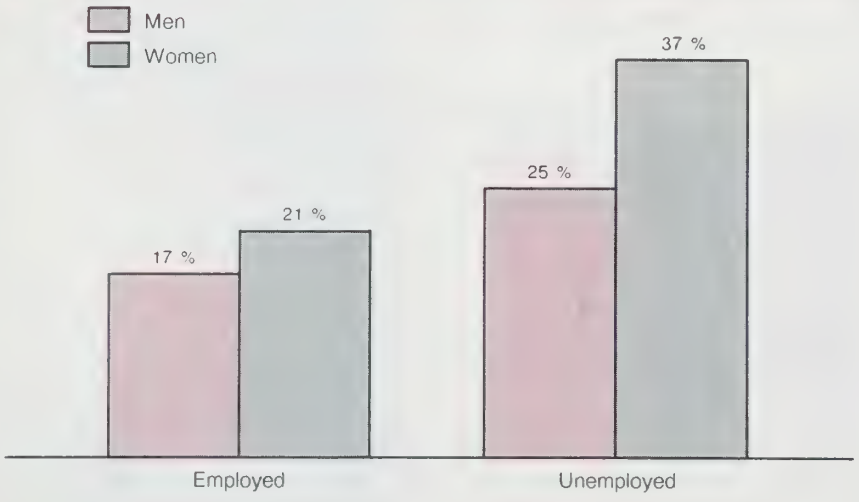
It is likely that other workplace accidents, less dramatic than these, also can be partially attributed to sleep disruptions. One study[1] found that when workers changed their wake-up time on their days off, the likelihood of an accident occurring on the first day back to work increased.

Shift workers were most likely to report workplace accidents or illnesses. In 1991, 19% of night shift workers and 15% of rotating shift workers, compared with 8% of day and 9% of afternoon workers, reported the occurrence of workplace illness or injury in the 12 months prior to the survey. While some of this can be explained by differences in the type of work performed, it is possible that heightened levels of sleepiness among shift workers also played a role.

[1] Industrial Accident Survey, Workers' Compensation Board of British Columbia, 1973.

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People aged 15-64 employed or looking for work reporting sleep problems[1], 1991



[1] Includes those reporting regularly having trouble going to sleep or staying asleep.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.

People looking for work

The percentage of people with sleep problems was much higher among those looking for a job[2] than among employed adults. In 1991, 29% of those looking for work, compared with 19% of employed adults, reported problems of this nature.

Once again, stress likely plays a role in the high incidence of sleep problems among unemployed adults. A somewhat higher proportion of unemployed than employed adults reported their lives to be very stressful. Part of this stress is likely related to problems associated with having low incomes, a situation more common to unemployed than to employed people. In 1991, 30% of unemployed adults had low incomes, compared with only 5% of employed adults.

Shift workers

Shift workers, who account for one in five employed people aged 15-64, are prone to sleep problems. People working night or rotating shifts often sleep less than other workers. In 1991, just over one-third of both night (36%) and rotating shift workers (35%) reported less than 7 hours of sleep daily, on average. In contrast, just over one-quarter (27%) of day and afternoon or evening shift workers said that they had this amount of sleep.

Problematic sleep was somewhat more common among shift workers than among other employed adults. Over one-quarter (27%) of those on afternoon or evening shifts and 21% of those on night or rotating shifts stated that they had trouble going to sleep or staying asleep. Among those working a regular day, 18% reported such problems.

In addition to problems common to all people who have trouble sleeping, people working shifts face the added complication of having the normal functioning of their biological clock disrupted. For many people, the disruption of sleep cues may result in sleep problems.

[2] Includes those aged 15-64 who reported "looking for work" as their main labour market activity in the year prior to the survey.

Heather Tait *is an analyst with the General Social Survey in the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division of Statistics Canada.*

PARENTS AND CHILDREN LIVING WITH LOW INCOMES

by Jillian Oderkirk

Nearly one-third (29%) of the 3.8 million Canadians living in a low-income situation in 1990 were children under age 18, representing almost 17% of all children that age. Children in low-income families may face difficulties ranging from restricted access to recreational activities and reduced acceptance by peers, to poor health, malnutrition and inadequate shelter. Many parents trying to stretch incomes often inadequate to meet the basic necessities of their families may feel frustrated and powerless to help themselves or their families achieve a better future.

Lone parents are more likely than other parents to be raising children in a low-income situation. Furthermore, their incomes tend to be farther below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs). The major reason for this is that more lone-parent than two-parent families with low incomes depend on government transfer payments, particularly Social Assistance, as their main income source. Incomes from Social Assistance are often well below the Low Income Cut-offs.

Even among families with wages and salaries as their major income source, the incidence of low income is greater among lone-parent than two-parent families. Two-parent families have the opportunity to become a dual-earner household, thus increasing family income. They also are characterized by the presence of a man and the average earnings of men exceed those of women. Lone-parent families are predominately headed by women, particularly young women, whose earning capacity is similar to that of mothers in two-parent families, but much lower than that of fathers. Thus, many lone mothers depend on low-wage incomes that are often insufficient to raise their families' incomes above the LICOs.



Families with low incomes

Lone-parent families are over-represented among families with low incomes. In 1990, lone-parent families accounted for almost one-half (47%) of all low-income families with children, yet represented just 14% of all families with children. Two-parent families were much less likely to be raising children with low incomes. In 1990, 10% of all two-parent families had low incomes compared with 56% of lone-parent families.

In 1990, the average income of lone-parent families living with low incomes was $12,800, compared with $17,100 for two-parent families. Among families with incomes equal to or above the Low Income Cut-offs, the average incomes of lone-parent and two-parent families were $38,200 and $61,500, respectively.

Measuring low income

The low income measure used is the 1986-based Low Income Cut-offs. These cut-offs were determined from an analysis of 1986 family expenditure data. Families who, on average, spent 20% more of their total income than did the average family on food, shelter and clothing were considered to have low incomes. The LICO for a family of three living in Canada's largest cities in 1990 was $24,389.

Low-income estimates presented are derived from the Survey of Consumer Finances Public-Use Microdata Files. Some microdata file records have been edited to protect confidentiality. Consequently, derived estimates relating to low income will differ marginally from those obtained from unmodified Statistics Canada files. However, the analysis and conclusions are unaffected by these differences.

Low income rising among lone parents

Not only are lone parents more likely than other parents to be raising children in a low-income situation, the incidence of low income among this group has been growing. In 1990, more than half (56%) of all lone parents with children under age 18 had family incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs). This was up slightly from 1986 and 1979.

The incidence of low income among husband/wife families with children under age 18 was similar in 1990 and 1979. In both years about 10% of two-parent families had low family incomes.

Younger parents have lower family incomes

Younger parents tend to have lower incomes, however, the incomes of lone parents of all ages are much lower than those of two-parent families. The average family income of lone parents ranged from $12,000 among those aged 15-24 to $38,200 among those aged 45-54. In contrast, the average income of two-parent families ranged from $29,600 among those with fathers aged 15-24 to $66,900 among those with fathers aged 45-54.

Major income source government transfer payments

The major source of income for almost one-half (48%) of all low-income families with children in 1990 was government transfer payments, followed by wages and salaries (39%) and self-employment income (8%). Government transfer payments include

More lone parents with low incomes in Canada than in many other nations

During the late 1980s, the percentage of lone-parent families living with low incomes in both the United States and Canada far exceeded that of other Western European nations. In all nations studied, however, lone-parent families were more likely than two-parent families to be living with low incomes.

In Canada and the former West Germany, differences between two-parent and lone-parent families were the greatest. In these countries, lone-parent families were more than 3.5 times as likely as two-parent families to be living with low incomes. In the United States, lone-parent families were 3 times as likely as two-parent families to have low incomes. In contrast, the incidence of low income was similar among lone-parent families and two-parent families in the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Sweden. Only in Sweden and the Netherlands did less than 10% of all lone-parent families live with low incomes.

Percentage with low incomes[1]

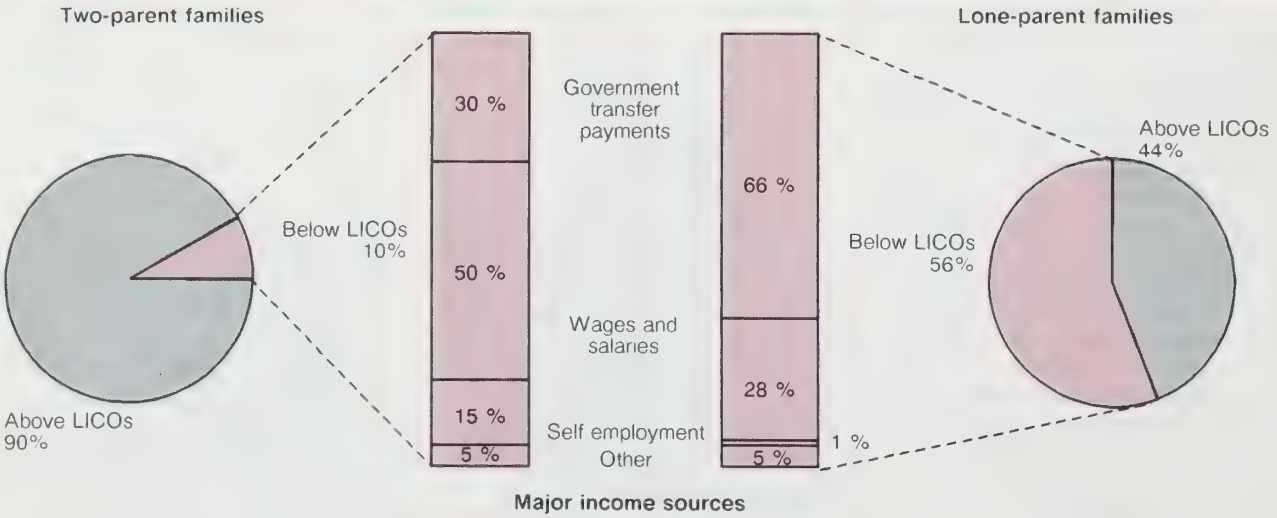
	Lone parents with children under age 18	Couples with children under age 18
	%	
Canada, 1987	**45.4**	**12.6**
United States, 1986	53.3	17.9
West Germany, 1984	25.5	7.1
United Kingdom, 1986	18.0	16.6
France, 1984	15.8	10.0
Netherlands, 1987	7.5	7.2
Sweden, 1987	5.5	5.0

[1] Low income measures are calculated from the Luxembourg Income Study Household Survey Data Files and are defined as the percentage of households in each country with heads aged 20-55 having incomes below 50% of the median income in each country (of households with heads aged 20-55). Income is after direct taxes and public transfers.

Source: Smeeding, Timothy M. and Lee Rainwater. Cross-National Trends in Income Poverty and Dependency: The Evidence for Young Adults in the Eighties. Prepared for the JCPS Conference, Washington D.C., September 20-21, 1991.

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Major sources of low family incomes[1], 1990



[1] Families with children under age 18, 1986-based Low Income Cut-offs.

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances Public-Use Microdata, unpublished.

sources such as Social Assistance Benefits, Unemployment Insurance benefits and Family Allowance payments.

Lone-parent families with low incomes (66%) were more likely than two-parent families in similar circumstances (30%) to depend on government transfer payments as their major income source. In contrast, wages and salaries were the major income source for one-half of all two-parent families with low incomes, but just 28% of all lone-parent families. About 15% of all two-parent and 1% of all lone-parent families had self-employment earnings as their major income source. Other sources of income, such as military pay and pensions were the major source of income for 4% of all families with low incomes.

Government transfer payments below the LICOs

Most families whose major source of income was government transfer payments had family incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs), in many cases thousands of dollars below. Of families whose major source of income was government transfer payments, 92% of lone-parent families and 59% of two-parent families had low incomes.

Lone parents relying on income from government transfer payments had the most financial difficulty. In 1990, 37% of lone parents whose major source of income was government transfer payments had family incomes $10,000 or more below the LICOs and 52% had incomes between $1,000 and $9,999 below. Very few lone parents (8%) whose major source of income was government transfer payments had family incomes equal to or above the LICOs.

Among two-parent families receiving government transfer payments as their major source of income, 25% had incomes more than $10,000 below the LICOs and 31% had incomes between $1,000 and $9,999 below the LICOs. Although 42% had incomes above the LICOs, just 18% had incomes $10,000 greater than the LICOs.

This is not surprising considering that the Low Income Cut-off for a small two-parent family (one child) or a lone-parent with two children living in a large city was $24,389 in 1990, yet most families with government transfer payments as their major income source received less than $20,000. In 1990, 97% of lone-parent and 82% two-parent families, whose major income source was government transfer payments, received less than $20,000.

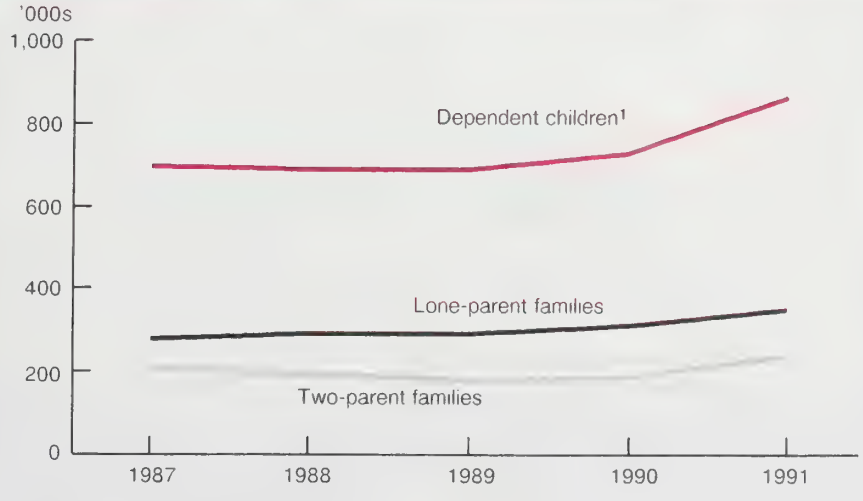
Social Assistance

According to Health and Welfare Canada, in March 1991, 2.3 million Canadians — including 864,000 children — received income from Social Assistance, 23% more recipients than in March 1989 and 71% more than in March 1980. Of all families with children receiving Social Assistance in 1991, 75% were lone-parent families. Overall, 57% of all Social Assistance cases were unattached individuals, followed by lone-parent families (28%), two-parent families with children (10%), and couples without children (5%).

The National Council of Welfare reported that the 1990 Social Assistance benefits paid to lone parents with one child, living in the largest cities in each province, ranged from $9,200 in New Brunswick ($7,700 less than the Low Income Cut-offs) to $14,600 in Ontario ($4,600 less than the LICOs). Two-parent families dependent on Social Assistance also had low incomes. In 1990, the Social Assistance incomes of two-parent families with two children, living in the largest cities in each province, ranged from $10,700 in New Brunswick ($13,900 less than the LICOs) to $19,500 in Ontario ($8,500 less than the LICOs).

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Recipients of Social Assistance, 1987-1991



¹ Includes a small number of dependent adults.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Social Program Information Division, March 1987 to March 1991.

Most Social Assistance incomes less than $10,000

Social Assistance or welfare is an important source of income for many low-income families headed by lone parents. Of all families with low incomes in 1990, 62% of lone-parent families received some Social Assistance, compared with 23% of two-parent families.

Almost all (89%) lone-parent families who received some income from Social Assistance in 1990 had incomes below the LICOs, while this was the case for less than half (43%) of comparable two-parent families. Most two-parent families (77%) and most lone-parents (66%) who collected some Social Assistance benefits received less than $10,000.

Low earnings more common among lone parents

Lone parents are less likely to be employed than male heads of two-parent families. Also, lone-parent families with wages and salaries as their major income source are much more likely than similar two-parent families to have low incomes.

In 1990, 55% of lone parents were employed, 35% were not in the labour force and 10% were unemployed. In contrast, 85% of fathers in two-parent families were employed, 7% were not in the labour force and 8% were unemployed.

Among families whose major source of income was wages and salaries, 29% of lone-parent families had incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs), compared with just 6% of two-parent families.

Over one million children growing up with low family incomes

In 1990, there were over one million children under age 18 living in families with low incomes, that is incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs). From 1979 to 1990, the number of children with low family incomes fluctuated between 934,000 and 1.25 million.

However, more children with low family incomes in 1990 were living with just one parent than in 1979. In 1990, 43% of children with low family incomes were living with one parent, compared with about 34% of children in 1979. Over the same period, the proportion of children in two-parent families with low incomes fell to 54% in 1990 from over 60% in 1979. In both years, about 3% of children with low family incomes lived with other relatives.

In contrast, almost all children with family incomes above the LICOs in 1990 (93%) and in 1979 (94%) were living with two-parents, while very few (5% in 1979 and 6% in 1990) were living with just one parent.

381,000 children with very low incomes

In 1990, 381,000 children were living in families with incomes $10,000 or more below the Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs). Another 641,000 children were in families with incomes ranging from $1,000 to $9,999 below.

Children of lone parents were more likely than other children to be living in families with the lowest incomes. In 1990, 24% of all children living in lone-parent families (188,400 children) had family incomes $10,000 or more below the LICOs, compared with 3% of children living in two-parent families (182,000 children) and 9% of children living with other relatives (10,500 children).

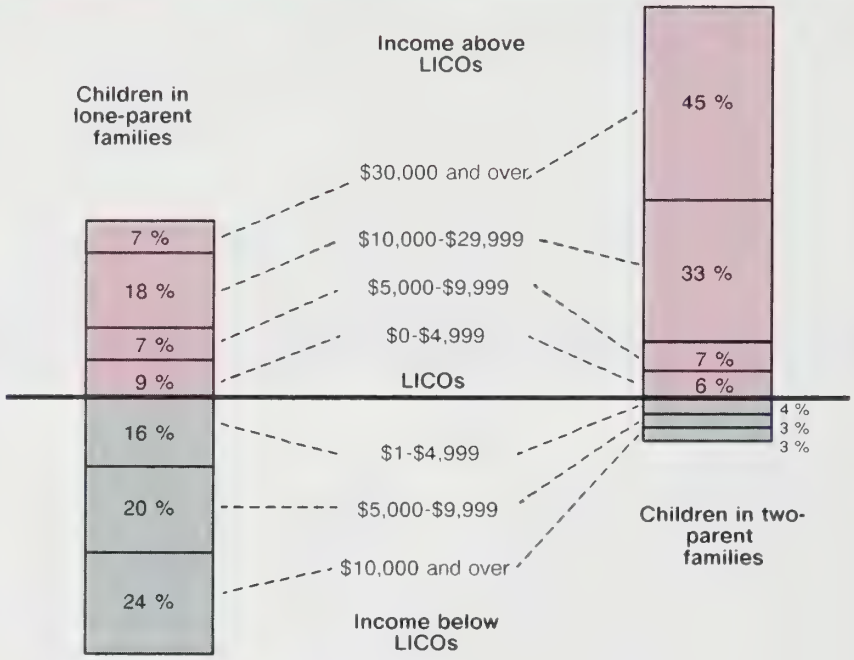
Children in two-parent families were the most likely to have family incomes $30,000 or more above the LICOs. In 1990, 45% of children living with two parents had family incomes that high, compared with only 7% of children living with one parent and 32% of children living with other relatives.

77,300 children just above the LICOs

Children in families with incomes only marginally exceeding the Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs) may experience many of the same disadvantages as children in families with incomes below the threshold. Adding children living in families with incomes that were less than $1,000 above the LICOs to those in families with incomes below the LICOs, about 1.2 million children lived with low incomes in 1990, a 7% increase from the estimated number below the LICO. Most of these 77,300 children (79%) lived in two-parent families.

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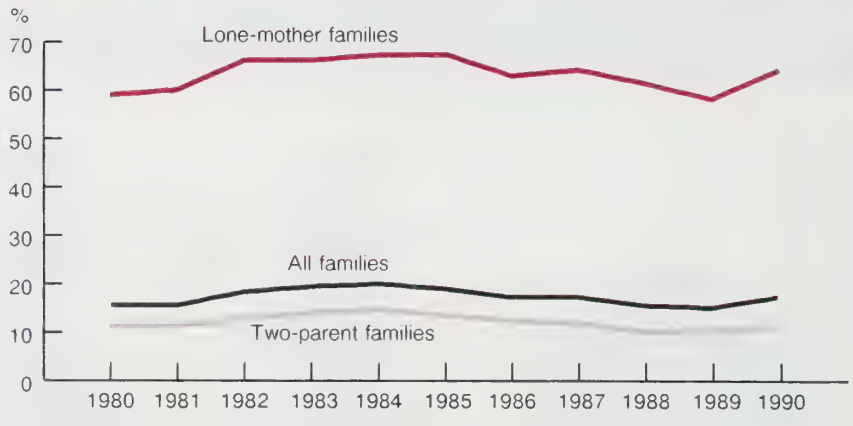
Most children[1] living with lone parents have family incomes $10,000 or more below LICOs[2], 1990



[1] Under age 18.
[2] 1986-based Low-Income Cut-offs.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances Public-Use Microdata, unpublished.

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Percentage of children under age 18 in families with low incomes, by family type, 1980-1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances Division, unpublished.

Gap between family income and the LICOs[1], by major source of family income and family type[2], 1990

Gap	All income sources		Government transfer payments		Wages and salaries	
	Lone-parent	Two-parent	Lone-parent	Two-parent	Lone-parent	Two-parent
$			%			
Below the LICOs:						
-10,000 and over	19.8	2.8	36.7	24.5	8.0	1.2
-1,000 to -9,999	33.2	5.7	52.5	30.8	18.3	3.5
-1 to -999	3.0	1.0	2.7	3.2	2.9	0.9
Above the LICOs:						
0 to 999	2.0	0.9	1.9	1.5	2.0	0.9
1,000 to 9,999	14.6	10.2	5.1	21.7	21.5	9.0
10,000 to 19,999	11.6	15.9	0.7	12.9	19.9	16.4
20,000 and over	15.8	63.4	0.4	5.4	27.4	68.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[1] Statistics Canada's 1986-based Low Income Cut-offs.
[2] Families with children under age 18.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances Public-Use Microdata.

Also, 15% of lone-parent families (39,500 families) whose major income source was wages and salaries earned less than $10,000 from wages and salaries. However, only 1% of two-parent families had earnings that low. About 37% of lone-parent families earned $30,000 or more from wages and salaries, compared with 82% of two-parent families. Many lone-parent families earned between $10,000 and $19,999 (25%) and between $20,000 and $29,999 (22%) in 1990.

Wives' earnings contribute

The incidence of low income is lower among two-parent families with mothers with paid employment than among similar families with mothers who do not work for pay. In 1990, 21% of two-parent families with mothers who earned less than $5,000 were living with low family incomes, compared with 3% of two-parent families with mothers who earned $5,000 or more. Also, mothers in 43% of all two-parent families with low family incomes did not have any earnings in 1990, compared with 19% of similar mothers in two-parent families with incomes above the LICOs.

Wives earnings similar to those of lone mothers

Women, whether they are lone mothers or mothers in two-parent families, who work full-time in the paid labour force have, on average, lower salaries than men. As a result, lone-mothers are more disadvantaged than parents in husband-wife families, not only because they can not form a dual-earner household, but because their wages tend to be lower than those of men.

Of all lone mothers who worked full time in 1990, 27% earned less than $10,000, 23% earned between $10,000 and $19,999, and 49% earned over $20,000. The distribution was similar among working mothers in two-parent families. In contrast, just 8% of working fathers in two-parent families earned less than $10,000, 12% earned between $10,000 and $19,999, and 79% earned over $20,000 including 59% who earned over $30,000.

Conclusion

There are over one million children living in families with low incomes. For these children and their parents, struggles of family life are compounded by constrained financial circumstances. For many families, the extent of the financial difficulties is great.

Lone parents and their children tend to have the lowest family incomes. Lone parents, predominately women, are doubly disadvantaged because child care responsibilities may limit their employment possibilities, while their potential earnings, as women, tend to be lower than those of men. Many lone parents have jobs, but earn less than what is necessary to raise their family incomes above the LICOs. For all families whose circumstances necessitate reliance on government transfer payments, incomes are very low.

Parents with low incomes may have difficulty meeting the basic needs of their families. To survive, many rely on assistance from individuals and organizations in their communities, such as food banks. Also, parents with low incomes may not be able to accumulate retirement savings or pensions. Without these income sources, parents may experience further episodes of low income after their child-rearing responsibilities have ended.

Children raised in families with low incomes experience material and cultural disadvantages that negatively impact on their future. Research indicates that these children are more likely than other children to be born with low birth weight, to die in infancy, to experience physical and mental health problems, to have learning difficulties, and to face discrimination. Such problems result in life-long barriers which may prevent children from ever leaving a low-income situation.

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LONE PARENTHOOD: GENDER DIFFERENCES

by Jillian Oderkirk and Clarence Lochhead

Most lone-parent families (82%) are headed by a mother. As a result, the characteristics of lone-parent families, in general, tend to reflect those of lone mothers and their children. A small but growing number of lone parents, however, are fathers, whose circumstances differ considerably from those of lone mothers.

Both lone mothers and lone fathers often carry the sole responsibility for the physical and emotional, as well as financial, well-being of their children. Lone mothers tend to be younger, to have less formal education, and to be raising younger children than lone fathers. For them, financial difficulties are often severe. Many young lone parents sacrifice personal educational attainment and career mobility to provide care for children and, as a result, are restricted to earnings from low-wage occupations or income from government transfer payment programs.

Not a new phenomenon

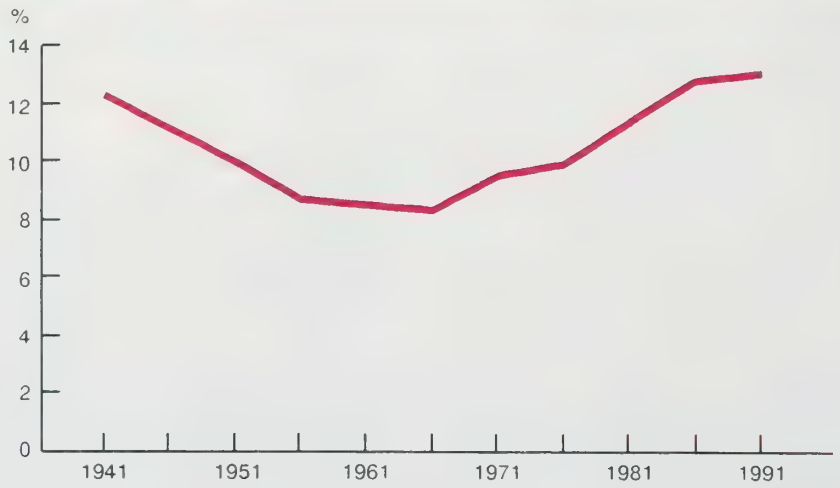
According to the 1991 Census, there were almost one million lone-parent families with never-married children of all ages, representing 13% of all families. This proportion has risen since 1966, when 8% of all families were headed by a lone parent. In 1941, however, over 12% of all families had been headed by a lone parent.

Circumstances creating lone-parent families have changed since 1941. During the first half of the 20th century, lower life expectancies, greater risks associated with childbirth, and war contributed to a higher incidence of lone parenthood resulting from the death of a spouse. Today, most episodes of lone parenthood result from marital dissolution (divorce or separation), after which custody of children is



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Lone-parent families as a percentage of all families, 1941-1991



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

generally awarded to mothers, or from never-married women raising children alone. Consequently, a larger proportion of lone parents in 1941 were men (26%) than in 1981 (17%) and 1991 (18%).

Gender differences

Men are more likely than women to become lone parents through divorce or the death of a spouse. While many lone mothers are also divorced or widowed, a relatively large proportion never have been married.

According to the Survey of Consumer Finances, during the late 1980s, 79% of lone parents were divorced, separated or widowed and 16% never had been married. Few lone parents (5%) were still married or in a common-law relationship but not living with their spouse. Lone fathers (86%) were more likely than lone mothers (78%) to be divorced, separated or widowed. On the other hand, relatively few lone fathers (5%), compared to lone mothers (17%), never had been married.

Divorced lone fathers tend to be older than divorced lone mothers. This may be because husbands, in general, tend to be older than their wives. Also, Canadian courts tend to grant older children a say in their residence following a divorce, increasing the likelihood of custodial retention of older children by fathers, while awarding custody of most young children to mothers.

Measuring gender differences

According to the Survey of Consumer Finances, there were 807,000 lone parents living with never-married children of all ages in 1989. Of these lone-parent families, 16% were living within another relative's household, such as an unmarried mother living with her parents. The remaining 84% were living alone (78%) or with people to whom they were not related (6%).

Because the number of lone fathers is small compared to lone mothers, to focus on differences between male and female lone parents living alone or with non-relatives, data for three survey years (1987, 1988 and 1989) were combined to increase the sample size. The characteristics of lone-parent families were very similar during each of these years, and results from analysis of the combined data (1987, 1988 and 1989) and analysis of each individual year, were not significantly different.

Of all male lone parents, 10% were under age 35, compared with 33% of female lone parents. While there were virtually no male lone parents aged 15-24, there was an average of 38,100 lone mothers that age in each year, representing almost 7% of all lone parents. Male lone parents were also more likely than female lone parents to be aged 55 and over (33% compared with 20%).

Most lone mothers have children under age 18

Of all lone-parent families, almost two-thirds (65%) had at least one child under age 18 living at home. Female lone parents, however, were more likely than male lone parents to have young children. Most lone mothers (68%) had children under age 18, while about one-half of lone fathers had children that young. Furthermore, almost one-third of lone mothers (29%) had children under age 7, compared to very few lone fathers (11%).

Not surprisingly, parents with at least one child under age 18 tend to be relatively young. During the late 1980s, 84% of lone parents with children that age were aged 45 and under. Only 14% of lone mothers with children under age 18 were over age 45, compared with 31% of lone fathers.

Lone fathers more highly educated

Overall, the educational attainment of lone fathers exceeds that of lone mothers. This is likely because the demands of lone parenthood limit or restrict many parents' ability to pursue higher education. As mothers tend to be both younger than fathers, and to have younger children when they become lone parents, they are more likely to interrupt their academic programs or to forego further educational

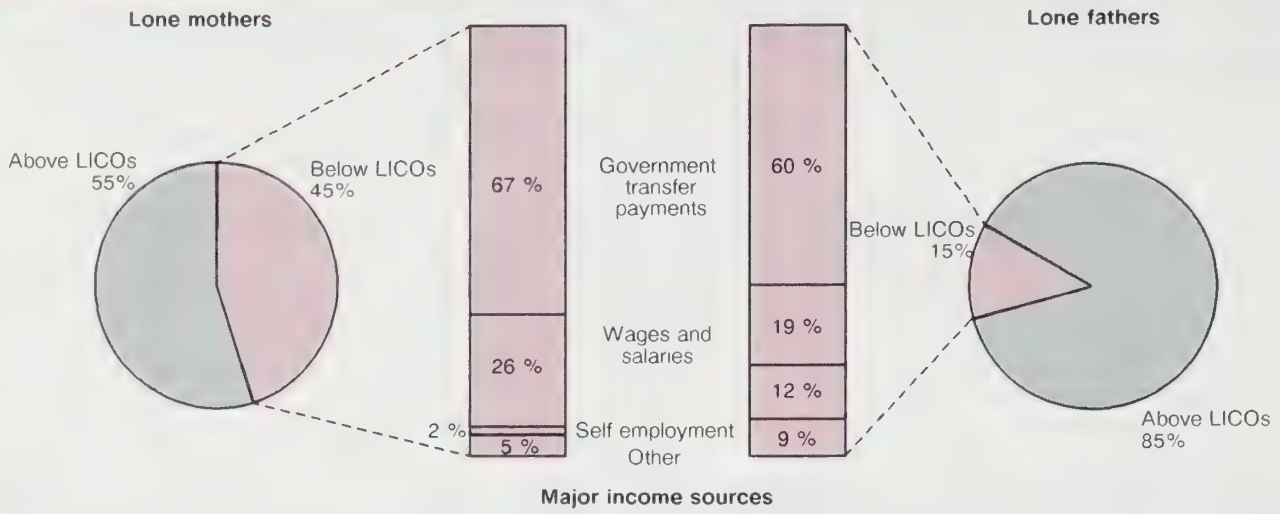
Lone mothers are younger, have less formal education, and lower incomes than lone fathers

	Lone mothers	Lone fathers
	%	
Age:		
15-24	7	1
25-34	26	9
35-44	29	32
45-54	18	25
55-64	11	18
65 and over	9	15
Education[1]:		
Grade 8 or less	18	20
Grades 9-10	17	15
Grades 11-13	8	3
High-school graduate	21	17
Some postsecondary	10	4
Postsecondary graduate	19	29
University degree	7	12
Income[2]:		
Less than $5,000	3	1
$5,000-$19,999	45	19
$20,000-$29,999	21	16
$30,000 and over	31	64
Total	**100**	**100**

[1] Data for 1989 only.
[2] 1989 dollars.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances Public-Use Microdata, combined income years 1987-1989.

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Major sources of low family income[1]



[1] Combined years 1987-1989, 1986-based Low Income Cut-offs.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances Public-Use Microdata, unpublished.

opportunities. This accounts, in part, for the higher proportion of lone mothers who have attended but not graduated from either high school or a postsecondary institution. Lone mothers still in school also contribute to this higher proportion. Considering all types of educational institutions, 4% of lone mothers were enroled full-time and 3% part-time. In contrast, about 1% of male lone parents were enroled in school either full-or part-time.

Major sources of income

The major sources of income for most lone-parent families were wages and salaries, followed by income transfers from the government, such as Social Assistance or Unemployment Insurance. More lone fathers (71%), however, than lone mothers (57%) had wages and salaries as their major income source.

Many lone mothers are constrained from employment because of limited work experience and educational attainment, and child-care responsibilities. During the late 1980s, over 41% of lone mothers were not in the labour force, compared with 28% of male lone fathers. Among employed lone parents, mothers (16%) were more likely than fathers (4%) to work part-time.

Women were more than twice as likely as men to have government transfer payments as their major income source (35% compared with 16%). Other major sources of income reported by a small minority of lone parents included self-employment earnings (3%), investment income (2%) and pension income (1%).

Lone fathers have higher earnings

Lone fathers are not only more likely than lone mothers to have wages and salaries as a major income source, their earnings are also higher. This is not surprising considering that lone mothers tend to be younger than lone fathers and men tend to earn higher salaries, on average, than do women.

During the late 1980s, about one-half (52%) of all male lone parents earned $30,000[1] or more from wages, salaries and self-employment income, compared with 21% of female lone parents. Female lone parents (33%) were more likely than male lone parents (25%) to earn between $10,000 and $29,000. About 22% of female lone parents and 9% of male lone parents had no income from these sources.

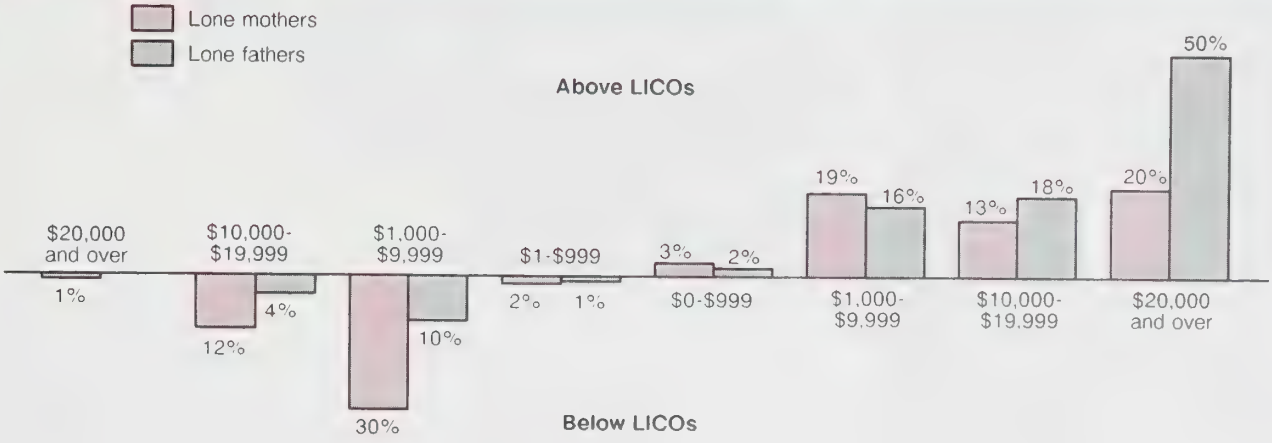
More lone mothers have low incomes

The incidence of low income is much higher among lone mothers than lone fathers, regardless of the ages of their children. During the late 1980s, 56% of lone mothers with children under age 18, and 20% of lone fathers with children that age, were living with incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs). Also, among lone parents whose children were all aged 18 and over, 20% of mothers and 10% of fathers had family incomes below the LICOs. Most lone mothers (67%) and lone fathers (60%) with low family incomes reported government transfer payments as their major income source.



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30% of lone mothers have family incomes $1,000 –$9,999 below the LICOs[1]



[1] Combined years 1987-1989, 1986-based Low Income Cut-offs.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances Public-Use Microdata, unpublished.

Gap between lone-parent family income and the LICOs[1], by major source of income and gender of parent

	All income sources		Government transfer payments		Wages and salaries	
Gap	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
$			%			
Below the LICOs:						
-10,000 and over	12.0	3.9	25.4	11.4	3.4	1.1
-1,000 to -9,999	30.4	10.3	58.3	40.5	14.8	2.7
-1 to -999	2.3	1.0	2.1	5.1	2.2	0.2
Above the LICOs:						
0 to 999	2.6	1.8	2.3	3.9	2.6	1.5
1,000 to 9,999	19.2	15.6	8.8	27.8	25.8	13.7
10,000 to 19,999	13.8	17.8	2.4	9.0	20.7	19.2
20,000 and over	19.7	49.7	0.7	2.3	30.5	61.7
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[1] Statistics Canada's 1986-based Low Income Cut-offs.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances Public-Use Microdata, combined income years 1987-1989

Many lone mothers far below the LICOs

What is even more striking is that a large number of lone-parent families headed by women have total incomes far below the LICOs. More than 11% of all lone mothers (an average of 67,950 families annually during the late 1980s) had incomes $10,000 or more below the LICOs. In contrast, 4% of lone-parent families headed by men had incomes that low. Also, 30% of all lone-parent families headed by women had incomes $1,000-$9,999 below the LICOs, compared with 10% of those headed by men.

Lone-parent families headed by men are not only more likely than those headed by women to have family incomes above the LICOs, but are also much more likely to have incomes exceeding the LICOs by a relatively wide margin. For example, 68% of male-headed lone-parent families had incomes $10,000 or more above the LICOs, compared with 34% of female-headed lone-parent families.

Income from transfer payments very low

Government transfer payments, such as Social Assistance and Unemployment Insurance, are the second most common major source of income among lone-parent families. Of lone-parent families whose main income source was government transfer payments, those headed by women were more disadvantaged than those headed by men. Of these lone mothers, 84% had family incomes $1,000 or more below the LICOs. In contrast, 52% of lone fathers in similar circumstances had family incomes that low. About one-quarter of these lone-mothers, compared with 11% of lone fathers, had family incomes $10,000 or more below the LICOs. An additional 38% of lone mothers and 21% of lone fathers had family incomes between $5,000 and $9,999 below the LICOs.

[1] All income figures are expressed in 1989 dollars.

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CANADIANS IN SUBSIDIZED HOUSING

by Margaret Blakeney

Over the past 50 years, Canadian housing policy has played a significant role in ensuring that most Canadians enjoy a very high standard of housing, by international norms. However, in 1988, according to the Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC), 2.8 million Canadian households (33%) lived in housing which did not meet high national housing standards. Of these, 1.3 million (14%) did not have the financial resources to obtain good quality housing. Most of these households (72%) were renters[1].

Many home owners have been assisted by tax incentive programs such as home ownership savings plans, exemption of sales taxes from housing transactions, renovation grants, capital gains tax exemptions associated with principal dwellings, or through National Housing Act (NHA) insured mortgage loans which reduce the risk to lenders of providing loans to home owners. Some renters also have benefitted from government sponsored social housing and rent supplement programs. Many Canadians, however, have not benefitted from government housing programs. — Ed.

According to data from Statistics Canada's 1990 Household Income, Facilities and Equipment Public-Use Microdata File (HIFE), 28% of renters payed 30% or more of their income on housing. For some, the problem was even more acute, with 10% of renters paying 50% or more of their income on housing.

Some groups are more likely than others to experience problems affording housing. Households headed by seniors, especially women, or very young adults are particularly vulnerable, as are one-person households and lone-parent families headed by women. Government social housing programs, have already targeted some of these groups. However, according to data from HIFE, only 5% of Canadian households (489,000) reported receiving rental housing subsidies.

A haven for seniors and women

Most subsidized households are headed by older adults, most of whom are women. In 1990, 52% of heads of subsidized households were aged 55 and over (12% were aged 55-64, 17% were aged 65-74, and 23% were aged 75 and over). Older women living on their own make up the largest single group in subsidized housing. In 1990, 29% of heads of subsidized households were unattached women aged 55 and over (4% were aged 55-64, 9% were women aged 65-74, and 16% were women aged 75 and over).

In contrast, 33% of all Canadian households were headed by people aged 55 and over (14% were aged 55-64, 12% aged 65-74, and 7% aged 75 and over). Just one-third of these were women. In 1990, 9% of all Canadian households were headed by unattached women aged 55 and over (2% by women 55-64, 3% by women aged 65-74, and 4% by women aged 75 and over).

[1] CMHC *Core Housing Need in Canada*, 1991, page 9.

In 1990, 35% of all Canadian households headed by women aged 75 and over lived in subsidized housing, as did 24% of those aged 65 and over, and 19% of those aged 55 and over.

Women heading lone-parent families form another large group of household heads in subsidized housing. In 1990, 15% of subsidized households were headed by lone mothers (1% by lone fathers). In contrast, only 6% of all Canadian households in general were female headed lone-parent families. In 1990, 11% of lone parents were in subsidized housing.

Couples and unattached individuals aged 15-54 are two other main groupings in subsidized housing. In 1990, 17% of subsidized households were couples aged 15-54 with children, 5% were couples this age without children, and 14% were unattached individuals aged 15-54. These figures are all below the overall distribution of Canadian households.

Many widowed, separated or divorced

People with housing subsidies are most likely to be widowed, separated or divorced. In 1990, nearly half (47%) of



HIFE

The Household Income, Facilities and Equipment Public-Use Microdata File (HIFE) combines information from several different surveys conducted by Statistics Canada. Demographic and labour force related characteristics of population and rent data come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS). Information on income originates with the Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF), while details on dwelling characteristics and household facilities are taken from the Household Facilities and Equipment Survey (HFES).

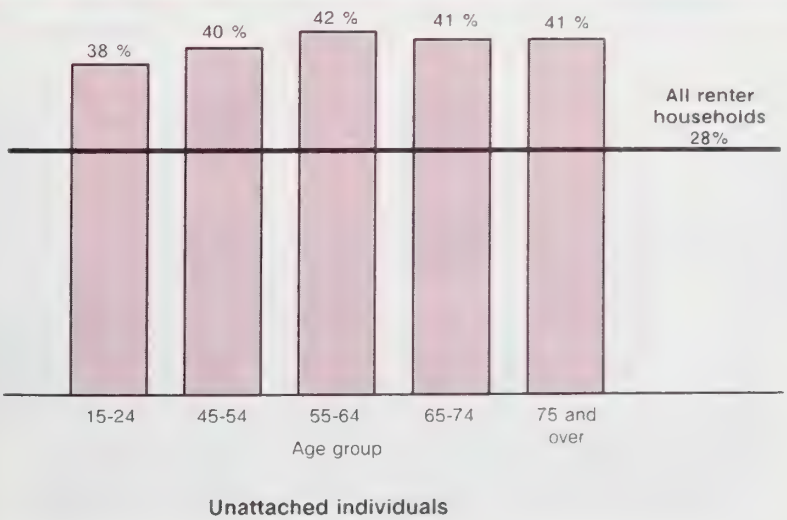
The LFS definition of subsidized households includes respondents whose landlord receives funds from a Rent Supplement Program, or the tenant's family or employer that allow the tenant to pay less than market rent for their unit. Since CMHC subsidies about 625,000 households, it is likely that the majority of subsidized households in the HIFE database receive subsidies from the government rather than from family members or employers.

Respondents who directly receive vouchers or money for the purpose of paying their rent are excluded.

In HIFE, a household head is defined as the husband in husband-wife families; the parent in lone-parent families with unmarried children; the person most responsible for household maintenance in lone-parent families with married children; the person in one-person households; the eldest in households other than parent-child or husband-wife households; and the head of the primary economic family unit in multi-unit households.

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Proportion of selected groups of renters paying 30% or more of their income on housing, 1990



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 HIFE.

subsidized household heads were widowed, separated or divorced, compared with 20% of all household heads. This reflects the high proportion of senior unattached individuals living in subsidized housing, many of whom may be widowed, and the large group of lone parents.

The remaining heads of households were either married or living common-law (34%), or never had married (19%). In contrast, 65% of all household heads were married or living common-law, and 15% never had married.

Most Canadian-born

Subsidized household heads have very similar roots to household heads in general. In 1990, approximately 80% of both groups had been born in Canada. A further 4% had come to Canada before 1946, and 3% between 1946 and 1955.

More than half (57%) of subsidized household heads stated English as their first language, followed by 32% who stated a language other than English or French, and 11% who stated that French was their first language. Proportions were similar for household heads overall.

Low levels of education

Low levels of education are common among those living in subsidized housing. For example, in 1990, 33% of subsidized household heads had less than 8 years of schooling and 6% had a university degree. In contrast, 17% of all household heads had less than 8 years of schooling and 12% had university degrees.

Since educational attainment and income are closely related, the high incidence of low educational attainment may be a reflection of the large concentration of household heads with low incomes. It may, in part, also reflect the concentration of older people in subsidized housing. Nevertheless, the incidence of low educational attainment was higher among subsidized household heads than household heads in general.

In 1990, heads of subsidized households were about twice as likely as other household heads to have an elementary education only. Among those aged 35-44, the difference was even more pronounced, with subsidized heads being more than two-and-a-half times as likely as heads of other households to have only an elementary school education. Likewise, about half as many subsidized household heads as other household heads had a university degree. Among those aged 15-24, the difference was most pronounced, with one-fifth as many subsidized as other household heads having a degree. However, among this age group, almost one-third more subsidized heads than other household heads had postsecondary diplomas.

As well, the much higher incidence of separated, divorced and widowed people, particularly women, among subsidized heads compared to other household heads may also contribute to the overall lower levels of educational attainment among subsidized household heads. This is because widowed, divorced and separated people tend to have lower levels of educational attainment than either their single, never married or married counterparts. For example, in 1990, among all household heads, those who were widowed, separated or divorced had the highest incidence of elementary education only (28%), and the lowest incidence of university graduates (7%). Among subsidized household heads, the differences were even greater, with 43% of widowed, separated and divorced heads having an elementary education only, and less than 2% having a university education.

Few in labour force

Most subsidized household heads are not in the labour force, as would be expected given the high concentrations of people of retirement age and lone parents. In 1990, 64% of subsidized household heads were not in the labour force, 23% were employed and 13% were unemployed. In contrast, 34% of all household heads were not in the labour force, 58% were employed and 8% were unemployed.

Among those in the labour force, subsidized household heads worked most commonly in the service sector (23%), followed by clerical occupations and occupations in the social sciences, humanities and professions (13% each). Among all household heads, administrative or managerial fields were most common (15%), followed by occupations in the service sector, and in the sciences, humanities and professions (11% each).

50% below the LICOs

Most people in subsidized housing have relatively low incomes[2]. In 1989, the average income of subsidized rental households was $22,500 (1991$). Most subsidized households (80%) had incomes below $31,000, and 62% were below $17,900. Nearly 50% were below Statistics Canada's 1978-based Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs).

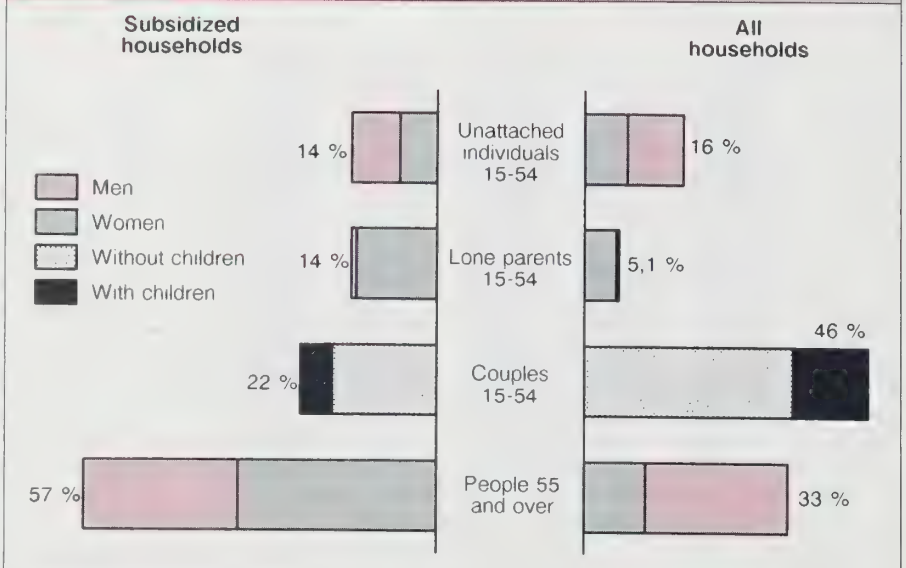
In contrast, the 1989 average household income was $43,800, $30,900 for rental households and $51,200 for owner households. Just 40% of all households had incomes below $31,000, 20% had incomes below $17,900, and 14% were below the LICOs.

As would be expected, given the overall distribution of household types, most subsidized households below the LICOs[3] were one-person households (62%). A further 20% were female lone parents, and 10% were couples with unmarried children.

The majority of subsidized household heads with incomes below the LICOs were either seniors or relatively young. In

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Distribution of household types, 1990

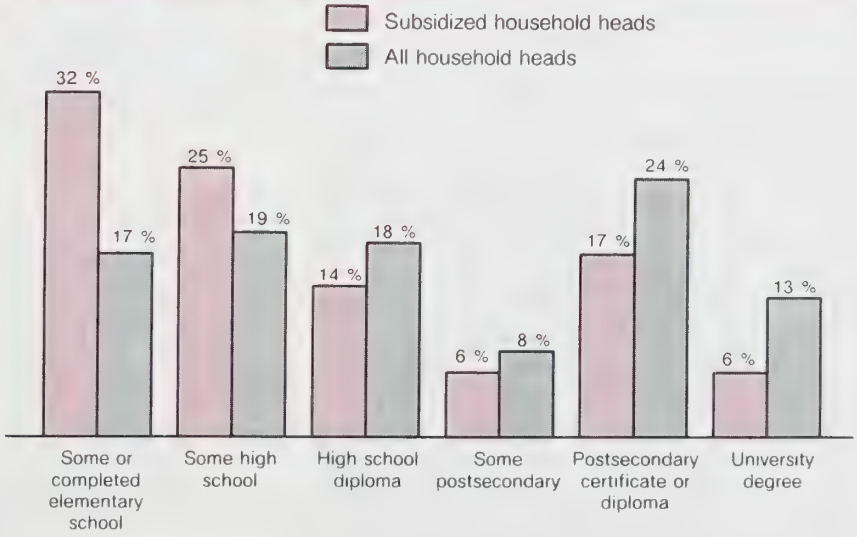


Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 HIFE.



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Most subsidized household heads have low levels of education, 1990



Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 HIFE.

1989, 39% of subsidized heads below the LICOs, were aged 65 and over, while 18% were aged 25-34. In contrast, almost half of Canadian household heads below the LICOs, were aged 25-44 (48%)

Most income from transfer payments

Most subsidized household heads (56%) stated that government transfer payments were their chief source of income in 1989. Just 36% stated that wages and salaries were their main income source. This compared with 16% and 57%, respectively of households overall.

Of subsidized households receiving transfer payments as their main source of income, most were unattached individuals

[2] A very few (4%) were high income households most likely receiving subsidies from their families or employers, i.e. living in company housing.

[3] Households below the LICOs refer to the Survey of Consumer Finances' economic families.

Government programs

Delivery of subsidized housing in Canada is the combined responsibility of federal, provincial and municipal governments. Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC) is the national agency responsible for administering federal housing policy. CMHC designs housing programs providing guidelines for groups wishing to participate in the programs, partially covers operating costs and losses, provides subsidy funding and sometimes partially covers mortgage payments. It also provides technical assistance and funds research on housing issues. It cooperates with other levels of government and the private sector to deliver social housing in Canada. Some of its programs include:

Public Housing: This was the chief form of social housing from 1948 to 1978. Capital costs of units, as well as funds to cover the difference between subsidized and market rents were usually shared between the federal and provincial governments. Administration, while originally federal, has been turned over to provincial housing corporations, in most cases.

Non-Profit and Co-operative Housing: This program replaced the Public Housing Program in 1978 and ran until 1985. At this point, it was replaced by a new non-profit program including urban natives. Capital costs and administration are provided by private institutions or governments. CMHC provides mortgage security and subsidy funding. Developments under this program are usually mixed income, with between 15% and 50% of the units receiving rental subsidies. The rest are rented at low-end market rates.

Rent Supplement: Under this program, CMHC provides funds to cover the difference between market rent and tenant's geared-to-income rent in non-profit and Co-op developments. It also provides funds to private landlords who rent units to tenants on waiting lists for subsidized housing.

Federal Co-operative Housing: This program fostered construction of co-operative housing for low- and moderate-income tenants through the provision of insurance for index-linked mortgages. A certain percentage of units were eligible for rent supplements. It has been discontinued recently.

Rural and Native Housing: Under this program, CMHC covers the difference between carrying charges or operation costs of the units and geared-to-income rental payments of the household for units built in communities of under 2,500 people.

Project Haven: In 1989, CMHC and Health and Welfare Canada began this program to facilitate construction of hostel beds for survivors of domestic violence. This program ended in 1992, and has been followed by The Next Step, which provides transition housing.

Provinces and territories differ in the way that they handle housing policy. Some provinces have provincial housing corporations with functions similar to the federal body, some making housing part of a cabinet portfolio such as urban affairs, and others allowing complete federal administration of subsidized housing in their regions.

Except for P.E.I. and the N.W.T., provincial housing corporations or ministries have opted into federal programs by sharing the capital costs (and sometimes operating losses) of any developments built in their regions. Provincial governments may also implement their own special programs. Examples include *Logirente*, a Quebec program providing a special subsidy to assist in covering shelter costs to households with heads over age 60; and *Homes Now* in Ontario, an entirely provincially funded program encouraging private and municipal non-profit organizations to create rental housing by providing them with development grants and loans and operating subsidies.

The day-to-day administration of government social housing developments is carried out by municipal housing authorities, private non-profit groups, such as church or citizens' coalitions, or the members of housing co-operatives. In large urban centres, the municipal housing authority may also share in capital costs of construction. In smaller centres, the province may be the chief administrator.

Regardless of funding and administrative arrangements, the determination of rent and allocation of subsidized rental units are similar in nearly all parts of Canada. The rent on most subsidized units is geared to 25% to 30% of the tenant's income. As units become available, they are allocated to people on waiting lists who are considered to be most in need.

(66%). Just 14% were couples with children, 13% lone parents, and 7% couples without children.

The majority of subsidized household heads receiving transfer payments as their main income source were aged 65 and over (61%) (25% were aged 65-74 and 36% were aged 75 and over). In general, the most likely transfer income sources for people of this age are benefits from Canada or Quebec Pension Plans (CPP/QPP), Old Age Supplements (OAS) and Guaranteed Income Supplements (GIS). Among lone-parent families, the usual source of income from transfer payment is Social Assistance. For others, benefits from transfer payments are generally from Disability Allowances, Unemployment Insurance (UI) or Social Assistance.

Among subsidized household heads whose main income came from wages and salaries, 37% were couples with children, 23% were unattached individuals, 18% were lone parents, and 16% were couples without children. Most were aged 25-44 (57%).

Concluding remarks

Subsidized housing has clearly been targeted to the people most in need of such housing. Recent trends, such as the aging of the population, increases in marriage breakdowns, growth in the number of lone-parent families, and increasing numbers of families with children below the LICOs could increase the need for subsidized housing in the future.

Margaret Blakeney *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

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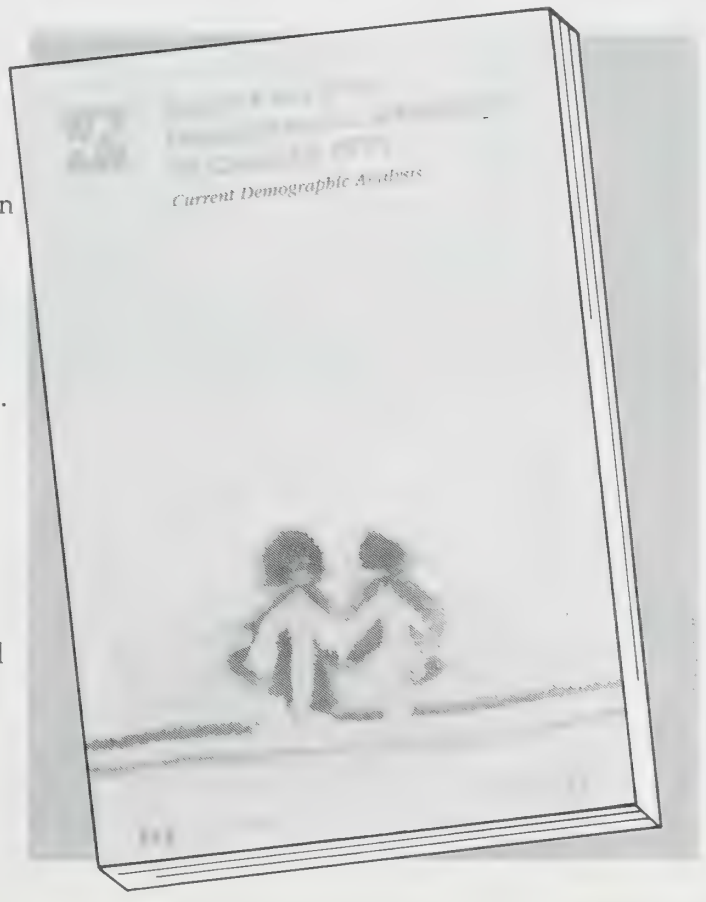
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TODAY'S EXTENDED FAMILIES

by Anna Paletta



Today's extended families are different from those of the past. Whereas members of such families, such as adult siblings or parents, used to live within the same household, it is now more common for them to live in different households. Because of this change, it is often presumed that roles once assumed by family are now being performed by social institutions, such as daycare centres and nursing homes. Evidence from the 1990 General Social Survey (GSS), however, indicates that kin continue to be an important source of support for one another. Such support now tends to come from extended family members living in a different household, rather than in the same one.

Help given and received

Dependence on family members for household help remains high. In 1990, 81% of the 20.5 million Canadians aged 15 and over received or provided at least one unpaid[1] service, other than child care, from or to someone living outside their household at least once during the previous twelve months. Almost one-half (46%) both gave and received help. Among those who only gave or only received help, more gave (24%) than received (11%).

Family members, that is, parents, siblings, children and other relatives, constituted a substantial proportion of people providing help. Of all contributors of financial support to respondents, 68% were family members. Furthermore, 59% of housework, 47% of house maintenance, and 36% of transportation contributors were family members.

Parents are an important source of all types of help, especially financial, for their children living in another household. In 1990, an estimated 39% of all contributors of financial help were parents. This did not include lump sum payments, such as an inheritance or a large gift, that may have occurred earlier than the 12 months preceding the survey.

Traditional roles are evident in the provision of help. Of all people providing assistance, daughters made up an estimated 11% of the contributors of housework, whereas sons made up 4%. On the other hand, sons accounted for 9% of the contributors of unpaid house maintenance, and daughters, 3%.

Depending on the type of help provided by someone living outside the household, siblings accounted for roughly 8% to 10% of the contributors. All other relatives together (that is, other than parents, children or siblings) constituted an estimated 11% to 18% of the contributors.

Child care

While daycare centres and caregivers outside the family often provide child care, many parents still depend on family members to care for their children while they are at work or away from home for other reasons. Of the 5.8 million Canadian households with children under age 15 living at home in 1990, 1.8 million received paid or unpaid child care on a regular basis from someone living outside their household. Almost one-quarter of those who received such care for their children received it at the home of a family member: 13% in the home of the children's grandparents and 9% in another relative's home. Of households receiving child care in their own home from someone living in another, an estimated 41% received it from a family member — either from a grandparent (21%) or another relative (20%).

Of all people who reported providing help to others, 32% (24% of men and 39% of women) provided unpaid child care either directly or through an organization to children outside their household. In 1990, 16% of these contributors cared for children at least once a week. Of these weekly caregivers, more than two-thirds provided unpaid child care to a family member: 25% to a daughter's children, 19% to a son's, and 13% each to a brother's or sister's, or to another relative's children.

Personal care

Of the 324,000 adult Canadians living in private households who reported a physical or mental limitation and who had received help with personal care (such as bathing and dressing) at least once in the 12 months preceding the 1990 GSS, most had this help from a family member living in or outside of the household.[2] Spouses

Distribution of type of help from outside of household, by contributor, 1990[1]

Contributor:	Type of help:			
	Housework	House maintenance	Transportation	Financial support
			%	
Family	**59**	**47**	**36**	**68**
Parent	17	7	7	39
Sibling	10	10	8	9
Daughter	11	3	6	6[2]
Son	4	9	4	
Other relative	17	18	11	14
Other	**41**	**53**	**64**	**32**
Friend	37	52	62	25
Organization/ Other	4	1	2	7
Total %	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Millions	3.5	5.5	9.5	2.7

[1] Some individuals received help from more than one person so that the total number of people helping is greater that the total number of recipients. For example, 2.8 million people aged 15 or over received unpaid help with housework from a total of 3.5 million relatives, friends, or through organizations.
[2] Includes both daughters and sons.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey.

1990 General Social Survey

The General Social Survey (GSS) gathers data on non-institutionalized people aged 15 and ovepager living in the 10 provinces. The 1990 GSS, "Family and Friends", asked people whether they had provided or received any unpaid help to or from someone living outside their household in the previous 12 months. It also examined the relationship of the people, that is, whether this help was provided to or received from a parent, son, daughter, sibling, other relative, friend, or other individual or organization.

Unpaid help included housework, house maintenance, transportation, child care, personal care and financial help. Housework included tasks such as cooking, sewing and cleaning. House maintenance included repairs, painting and carpentry, as well as outside work, such as lawn mowing or snow shovelling.

[1] Help referred to in this article is unpaid help except for child care and personal care received which may include paid and unpaid help.
[2] The findings of Statistics Canada's 1986 Health and Activity Limitation Survey are similar but not directly comparable because of the differences in the questions asked.

made up 27% of personal care contributors and other family members made up 33%.

As was the case for contributors of personal care, most recipients of personal care were family members. Of all recipients, 17% were parents, 7% were siblings, 6% were children and 29% were other relatives.



Financial help

An estimated 25% of Canadians provided financial help to family members, friends, and other individuals and organizations. Not surprisingly, more higher than lower income households provided financial help. This ranged from 34% among those with a total household income of $80,000 or more to 16% among those with a total household income of less than $10,000.

The opposite was true of those who received financial help. Where 11% of all households received financial help from someone living outside their household, there was a greater tendency for lower than higher income households to do so. This ranged from 17% among those with a total household income of less than $10,000 to 6% among those with a total household income of $80,000 or more.

Gender differences

According to the GSS, both men and women shared tasks mostly with their family and friends. Men, however, exchanged more with friends, while women exchanged more with family.

There is a tendency to follow traditional roles when providing assistance to people with various tasks. For example, in 1990, of all people providing various forms of help to those outside their family, women made up 64% those providing housework. On the other hand, men accounted for most of those providing house maintenance (74%). Also, most people providing unpaid child care through an organization or to children outside their household were women (63%). Similarly, women made up 70% of people providing personal care to people outside their household.

With a little help from our friends

While extended family members continue to play an important role in helping one another, friends are also an important part of Canadians' primary support group. In fact, Canadians have, on average, greater numbers of close friends (7 to 8) than siblings (4).

In addition, many Canadians live far away from their extended family members. Approximately 16% of Canadians are foreign-born and an estimated 65% of the adult population had moved at least once between 1980 and 1990, with 15% of these having moved more than 100 kilometres in their most recent move. As people become more mobile and family size decreases, Canadians may become even more dependent on friends for help.

Friends accounted for 62% of people providing help with transportation, 52% with house maintenance and 37% with housework. They also made up 25% of contributors of financial help.

Organizations tend to play a relatively small role in helping people with various tasks. Child and personal care were the only exceptions. In 1990, of all help received with personal care, 32% came from people working through an organization or from an individual other than a relative or personal friend. Of all individuals or organizations providing out-of-home child care, workplace daycare centres accounted for 3% and other daycare centres, 27%.

Anna Paletta *is an analyst with* Canadian Social Trends.

• For further information, see: Burch, Thomas K. *Families in Canada (1986 Census of Canada Focus on Canada* Series). Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 98-127. Ottawa: Ministry of 1990 Supply and Services; Burke, Mary Anne. "Families: Diversity the New Norm," **Canadian Social Trends**. Summer, 1986. Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 11-008; Priest, Gordon E. "Private Households by Number of Generations Present: New Data From the Census of Canada," *Canadian Statistical Review*. Volume 60 Number 1, January 1985. Statistics Canada Publication No. 11-003.

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SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,240.3	26,610.4	27,000.4[pr]
Annual growth (%)	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5[pr]
Immigration[1]	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,527	219,480[r]
Emigration[1]	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	39,649	39,233[pp]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	15.3	15.1[r]
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.1	7.2[r]
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	2.9	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	1,039	990	915	872	789	776	841	1,417
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572	12,340
- goods sector (000s)	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626	3,423
- services sector (000s)	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946	8,917
Total unemployment (000s)	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109	1,417
Unemployment rate (%)	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.3
Part-time employment (%)	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4	16.4
Women's participation rate (%)	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4	58.2
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	35.1	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	34.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	32,739	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	46,069	*
% of families with low income (1986 Base)	15.6	14.3	13.6	13.1	12.2	11.1	12.1	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	65.6	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	67.6	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,074.4	5,141.0[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.9	832.3	856.3	887.0[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,672	2,947
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.5	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	42.8	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	37.3	*
- women	46.6	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	41.2	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	25.5	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	27.8	*
- women	25.5	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	26.8	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.8	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	714	749	808	856	898	948	1,013	1,097[p]
- property	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,844	6,368[p]
- homicide	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.8
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1990 $000,000)	151,003.3	155,990.6	157,737.2	160,670.7	164,293.2	170,125.0	175,640.0	*
- as a % of total expenditures	55.6	55.8	56.4	56.1	56.2	56.2	56.7	*
- as a % of GDP	26.2	26.2	26.1	25.5	24.7	25.0	26.3	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	+6.3	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+5.0	+2.3	−0.5	−1.7
Annual inflation rate (%)	4.4	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6
Urban housing starts	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary data [pp] Preliminary postcensal estimates [m] Figures as at March [pr] Updated postcensal estimates [r] Updated data

1 For year ending May 31st.

2 Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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CANSIM

Information related to themes covered in this issue of Canadian Social Trends can be found on CANSIM, Statistics Canada's machine-readable data base and retrieval system.

Consumer Price Indices
Matrices 2201-2259

Government Transfer Payments to Persons
Matrices 5019-5020, 5067-5076, 5078, 6961-6962

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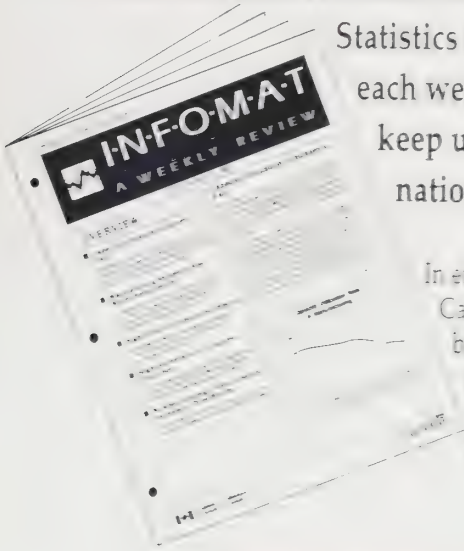
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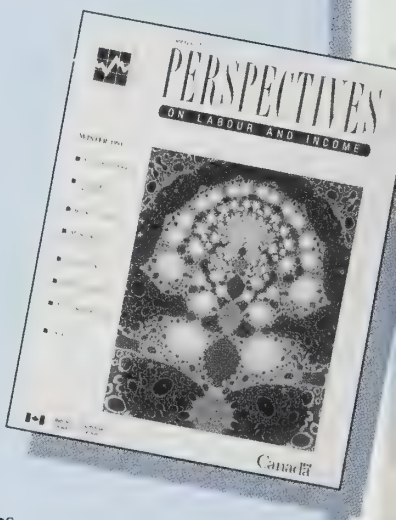
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In Memoriam

Dr. Edward T. Pryor



Edward Pryor, Director General of Statistics Canada's Census and Demographic Statistics Branch, died last November at the age of 61. His participation and leadership in six national censuses led many of us at Statistics Canada to refer to him fondly as "Mr. Census." Dr. Pryor was also responsible for Canada's first General Social Survey. He fostered a number of initiatives which integrated related data into "user-friendly" information such as that in **Canadian Social Trends**. This publication is in his debt for the support and encouragement he provided over the years.

Dr. Pryor went beyond numbers and clearly understood the relationship between information and knowledge in the proper functioning of a free and democratic society. He understood what was involved in the creation of meaningful and sound information and how it could be transformed into a useful tool for society.

Edward Pryor's influence extended far beyond Statistics Canada. He provided valuable advice to the Chinese government when it conducted the 1982 Census of China. He also wrote almost 30 articles and publications and was in constant demand as a speaker both nationally and abroad.

Before coming to Statistics Canada full-time in 1973, Dr. Pryor enjoyed a distinguished academic career. He earned his PhD at Brown University and also studied at Michigan State University and Laval University. From 1968 to 1972, he was chair of sociology at the University of Western Ontario. In the past few years he also taught at Carleton University. Last year, he was presented with the Brown University Distinguished Alumni Award.

Edward Pryor's professional legacy will continue for many years. Many of the people he taught and inspired still work for Statistics Canada, and the standards of excellence remain. He will be missed.

Cover: Evening on the North Shore (1916) by Clarence Gagnon. Oil on canvas, 77.0 x 81.6 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

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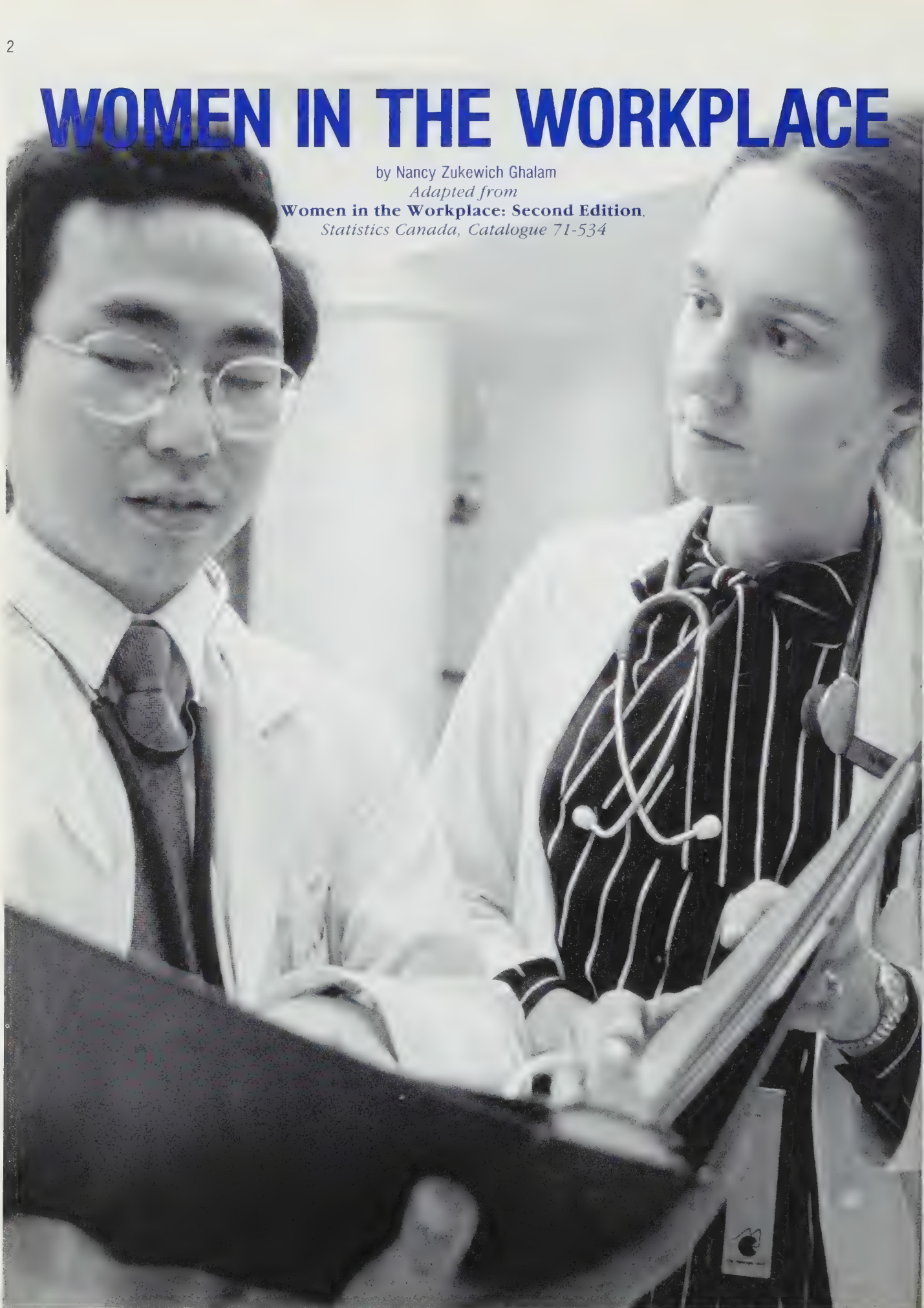
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WOMEN IN THE WORKPLACE

by Nancy Zukewich Ghalam

Adapted from
Women in the Workplace: Second Edition,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-534



One of the most dramatic social changes in Canada over the past several decades has been the increase in the number of women in the workplace.[1] In fact, women currently make up almost one-half of all employed Canadians. However, women are still over-represented in part-time jobs, and, despite increased participation in most professional occupations, they remain concentrated in traditionally female jobs. Also, women's earnings are still well below those of men. Even when employed, women remain primarily responsible for family care and housework.

Rise in employment

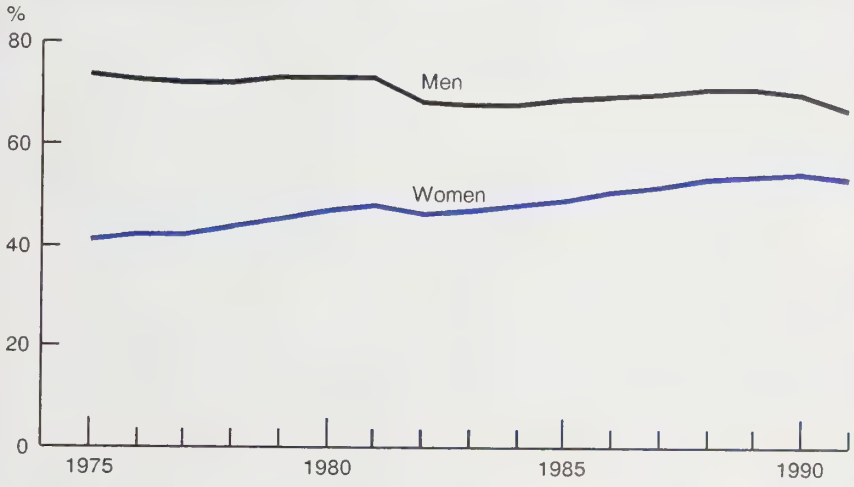
Over the past two decades, most of the growth in Canada's employment levels has been attributable to the influx of women into the workforce. In fact, women aged 15 and over accounted for almost three-quarters (72%) of the rise in employment between 1975 and 1991. During this period, the total number of working women increased 65%, from 3.4 million to 5.6 million, whereas the number of men with jobs rose only 14%, from 5.9 million to 6.8 million. As a result, by 1991, women made up 45% of the workforce, compared with 36% in 1975.

Indeed, by 1991, 53% of women were employed, up from 41% in 1975. In contrast, male employment declined over the same period, falling to 67% from 74%.

Female employment levels vary widely across Canada. The proportion of women in the workforce in 1991 ranged from a high of 59% in Alberta to a low of 39% in Newfoundland. The percentages were around the national average in Ontario (55%), Saskatchewan (55%), Manitoba (54%) and British Columbia (53%). In contrast, less than one-half of women were employed in Prince Edward Island (49%), Quebec (48%), Nova Scotia (47%) and New Brunswick (45%). Employment levels of women, however, rose in every province between 1975 and 1991.

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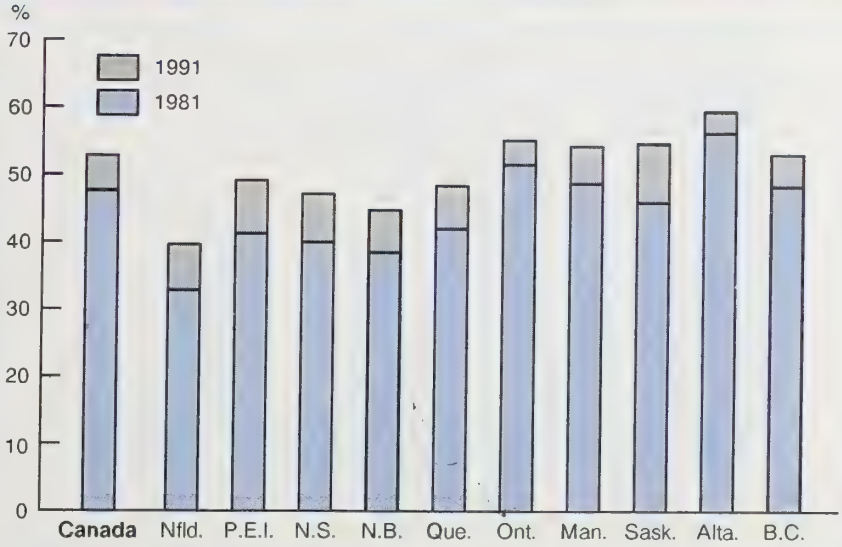
Percentage of women and men employed, 1975-1991



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001, 71-220 and 71-529.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of women employed, by province, 1981 and 1991



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-220 and 71-529.

More women working part-time

Much of women's employment is part-time. In 1991, 26% of employed women worked part-time, compared with only 9% of employed men. In fact, women have consistently accounted for at least 70% of all part-time employment in Canada over the past fifteen years.

Many women, though, work part-time by "choice". In 1991, 36% of women employed part-time reported they did not want a full-time job, while another 22% were going to school.

However, many women work part-time either because they can't find a full-time position or because of personal or family commitments. In 1991, almost 400,000 women, 27% of all female part-time workers, indicated that they wanted full-time employment, but could only find part-time positions. Another 187,000 women, 13% of the total, worked part-time because of personal or family responsibilities.

Among both women and men, young adults are the most likely to work part-time.

[1] Throughout this article, involvement in the workplace or workforce refers to employment. Statistics Canada's Labour Force Survey defines employed persons as those who have a job performing work for pay or profit. This includes paid work in the context of both an employer-employee relationship and self-employment. It also includes unpaid family work where the work contributes directly to the operation of a farm, business, or professional practice owned or operated by a related member of the household.

However, many older women also work part-time, in contrast to very few older men. In 1991, 20% of employed women aged 25-44 and 25% of those aged 45 and over worked part-time, compared with only 3% of employed men aged 25-44 and 6% of those aged 45 and over.

Not surprisingly, the reasons women work part-time vary by age, the stage of life, and the values associated with the different age groups. For example, most women aged 15-24 employed part-time in 1991 cited going to school as their reason (66%). On the other hand, 40% of women aged 25-44 and fully 65% of those aged 45 and over working part-time did not want full-time jobs. Personal or family responsibilities were cited by 24% of female part-time workers aged 25-44 (the prime child-rearing age-group) as their reason for working part-time.

More married women working

Married women are now much more likely to be in the workforce than they were in previous years. In 1991, 56% of married women were employed, up from 47% in 1981. Nonetheless, they are still considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be employed, although the percentage of married men with jobs dropped to 71% from 80% over the same period.

In contrast to trends among married women, the proportion of both separated/divorced and widowed women who were employed declined over the last decade. By 1991, 56% of separated/divorced women were employed, down from 59% in 1981. Over the same period, the proportion for widowed women dropped to 12% from 18%. Declines also occurred in the percentage of comparable men with jobs, although the proportion of these men employed remained higher than for women. In 1991, 65% of separated/divorced men and 20% of widowed men were employed.

Over the last decade, employment levels of single (never-married) women and men remained about the same. In 1991, 59% of such women and 60% of single men were in the workforce.

Growth in the employment of mothers

There has also been very rapid growth in the employment of women with children. In 1991, 63% of mothers with children under age 16 were employed, up from 50% in 1981. The rise in the proportion of employed mothers with children under age 6 was even more dramatic, rising to 57% from 42% over the same period. Still, these mothers were less likely than mothers whose youngest child was school-aged (6-15 years) to be in the work force (69%) in 1991.

In contrast to sharp increases in the proportion of mothers who were employed, the percentage of employed married women without children rose only to 45% in 1991 from 41% in 1981.

Lone mothers less likely employed than others

Female lone parents are considerably less likely than other women with children to be in the workforce. In 1991, just 52% of lone mothers with children less than age 16 were employed, compared with 65% of mothers in two-parent families.

In addition, employment among female lone parents was slightly lower in 1991 than in 1981 (54%). This decline can be traced largely to substantial drops in employment levels among lone mothers during the recessions of the early 1980s and 1990s, a trend contrary to that for women in general.

The labour force activity of female lone parents is particularly influenced by the presence of young children. For example, in 1991, 31% of lone mothers with children under age 3 and 47% of those whose youngest child was aged 3-5 were employed. These proportions were much lower than the 62% of lone mothers whose youngest child was aged 6-15.

Occupation

Most women continue to work in traditionally female-dominated fields. In 1991, 71% of women were employed in just five occupational groups — teaching, nursing or related health occupations, clerical, sales, and service. In contrast, only about 30% of employed men worked in one of these occupational groupings. The percentage of women currently employed in these areas, however, is down from around 76% during the early 1980s.

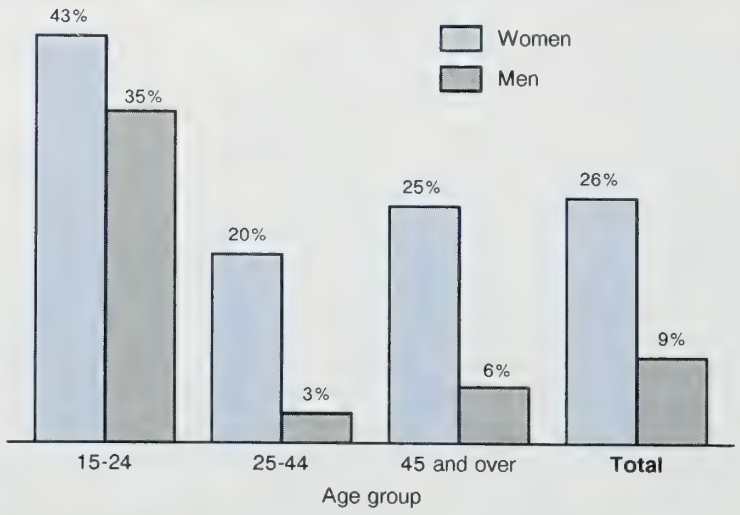
The largest single concentration of female workers is in clerical occupations. This category accounted for 29% of female employment in 1991, compared with 6% of that of men. At the same time, 17% of employed women had service jobs, 10% worked in sales, 9% were nurses or related medical professionals such as technicians, and 6% were teachers.

Women have made gains in several professional occupations. For example, in 1991, women accounted for 27% of all doctors, dentists, and other health diagnosing and treating professionals, up from 18% in 1982. At the same time, however, women made up 87% of nurses, therapists, and other medical assistants and technologists in 1991.

Women also represent a growing proportion of those working in management and administrative positions. In 1991, 40% of those working in one of these categories were women, up from 27% in 1981. Much of this increase is attributable to changes in occupational definitions, such as some clerical jobs being reclassified into the management/administrative category. Even without this artificial boost, though, there was considerable growth in women's employment in these areas.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of employed women and men working part-time, by age, 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-220.

On the other hand, women remain very much under-represented in the natural sciences, engineering, and mathematics. For example, in 1991, women made up only 18% of professionals in these fields, up just slightly from 16% in 1981.

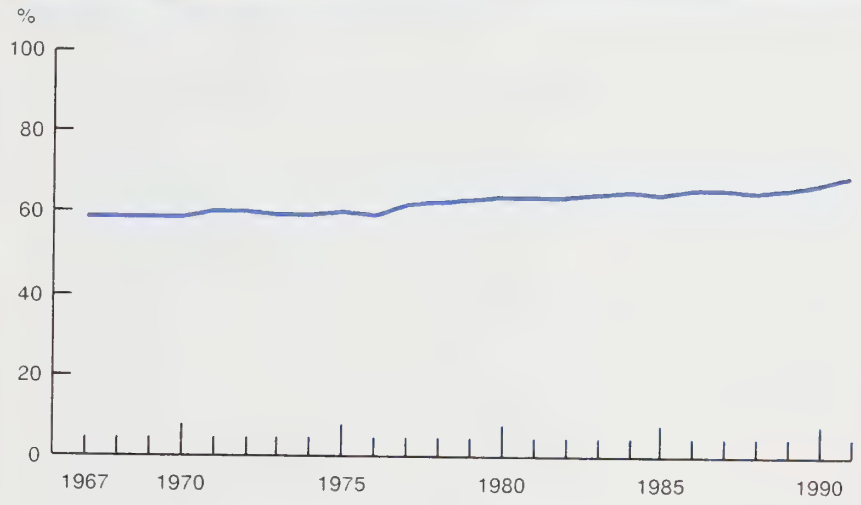
Women also remain under-represented in most traditionally male-dominated goods-producing occupations. Women accounted for 15% of employment in primary, manufacturing, construction, transportation, and materials handling jobs in 1991, ranging from 22% in the primary industries to only 2% in construction.

Self-employment lower for women

Women are less likely than men to be self-employed. In 1991, approximately 525,000 women worked for themselves, representing just 9% of all female employment. This compared with almost 1.3 million self-employed men, accounting for 19% of total male employment. As a result, women represented only 29% of all self-employed workers in 1991, a figure well below their share of total employment (45%).

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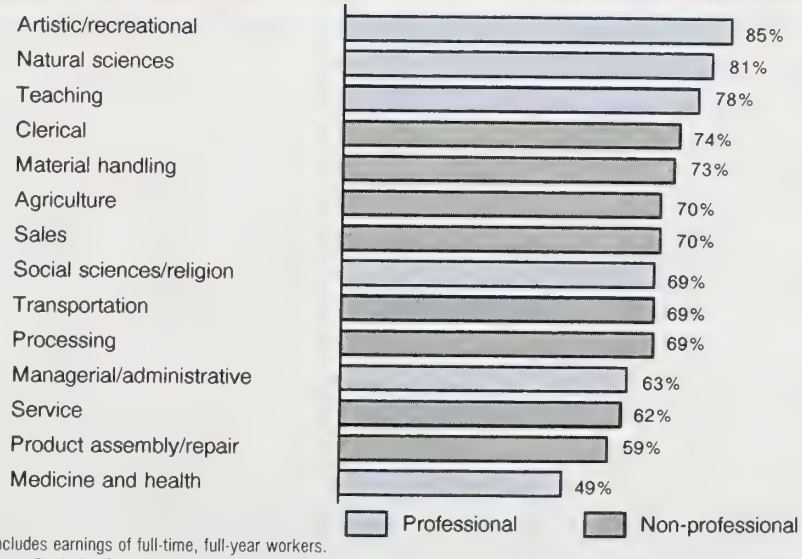
Earnings of women as a percentage of those of men[1], 1967-1991



[1] Includes earnings of full-time, full-year workers.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-217.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Earnings of women as a percentage of those of men[1], by occupation, 1991



[1] Includes earnings of full-time, full-year workers.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-217.

Average earnings[2]

Employed women in Canada earn substantially less than their male counterparts. In 1991, women working on a full-time, full-year basis earned an average of $26,800, just 70% as much as comparable men. Furthermore, this pattern changed little over the last decade: in 1981, women's earnings had been 64% of those of men.

Within several professional fields, the gap between women's and men's earnings is smaller than that for all occupations. In 1991, for instance, women employed in teaching earned 78% as much as their male colleagues.

Nonetheless, there were several professional occupations in which the female-to-male earnings ratio was quite low. In 1991, for example, the earnings of female managers/administrators were, on average, 63% of those of their male counterparts, and among health technicians and other related workers, just 58%. The earnings ratio was also very low, just 49% in 1991, for medical and health professionals. This reflects in part, though, the fact that women employed in these fields tend to be concentrated in lower-paying occupations such as nursing, whereas, men are more likely to be treatment and diagnosis professionals, such as doctors and dentists.

For women employed in some non-professional occupations, the earnings ratio was above the national rate: female clerical workers' earnings were 74% of those of their male counterparts. However, both women's and men's earnings in these occupational groups were quite low. In contrast, in the remaining non-professional occupations, women's earnings were less than 70% of those of men.

Contribution to family income

With the influx of married women into the workplace, both spouses are employed in the majority of Canadian families. By 1990, dual-earner families made up 62% of all husband-wife families, compared with 55% in 1981 and 32% in 1967.

Although the average earnings of women remain considerably less than those of men, women are making an increasingly

[2] Unless stated otherwise, the figures in this section are for women and men employed on a full-time, full-year basis.

important contribution to family income. The earnings of wives made up 29% of family income in 1990, compared with 26% in 1967. At the same time, husbands' contribution to family income fell from 63% in 1967 to 56% in 1990. The relative shares of income received from investments and transfer payments also increased over the same period.

Absences from work

Women in Canada remain primarily responsible for family-related matters, regardless of their employment status. This is reflected in the fact that women are more than twice as likely as men to be absent from work because of personal or family responsibilities. During an average week in 1991, 3.0% of all employed women, versus 1.2% of employed men, lost some time from work for these reasons.

The presence of young children has a particularly strong influence on work absences of women. In 1991, 11% of women in two-parent families with at least one child under age 6, and 6% of comparable lone mothers, missed time from work each week because of personal or family responsibilities. Absentee rates dropped to around 2% for both lone mothers and mothers in dual-parent families whose youngest child was aged 6-15. In contrast, the presence of young children had little effect on the work absences of fathers. Only 2% of fathers in two-parent families with preschool-age children and 1% of those whose youngest child was aged 6-15 lost time from work.[3]

[3] See *Absenteeism at work*, by Ernest B. Akyeampong, in **Canadian Social Trends**, Summer 1992, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-008.

Nancy Zukewich Ghalam *is an analyst with the Target Groups Project.*

Time use

Women who are active in the workplace still take on most household duties. In 1986, employed women spent almost an hour and a half more per day (averaged over a seven-day week) than men performing unpaid household work, including domestic work, primary child care, and shopping. That year, employed women spent 3.2 hours per day on these activities, compared with only 1.8 hours for men.

However, when all time devoted to paid work, education and unpaid work is combined,employed women and men spend nearly the same amounts of time on "productive activities". In 1986, women spent an average of 9.2 hours per day (averaged over a seven-day week) on these activities, compared with 9.0 hours for men. Given that women do more unpaid work, it follows that the productive activity of employed men is more heavily-oriented towards paid work. Indeed, in 1986, women devoted an average of 6.0 hours per day to paid work and education, compared with 7.2 hours for men.

Employed women generally have less free time than their male counterparts. In 1986, working women averaged about 4.2 hours of free time per day, compared with 4.8 hours for men. On the other hand, employed women devoted nearly half an hour more per day than men to personal care activities such as sleeping and eating.

Child care

The need for child care services has grown as a result of the increasing number of mothers entering the workforce. According to the National Child Care Study[1], 1.1 million preschool-age children and 1.6 million school-age children required some form of child care in the fall of 1988 to accommodate the work or study schedules of their parents.

Informal arrangements were the major source of child care support for families in 1988. In fact, regulated or organized care, including daycare centres, licensed family day care, before and after school care, and kindergarten and nursery schools was the main method of care for only 11% of children under age 13. Not surprisingly, preschool-age children were the most likely to be cared for through one of these arrangements. In 1988, this was the case for 19% of children under age 6, compared with only 5% of those aged 6-12.

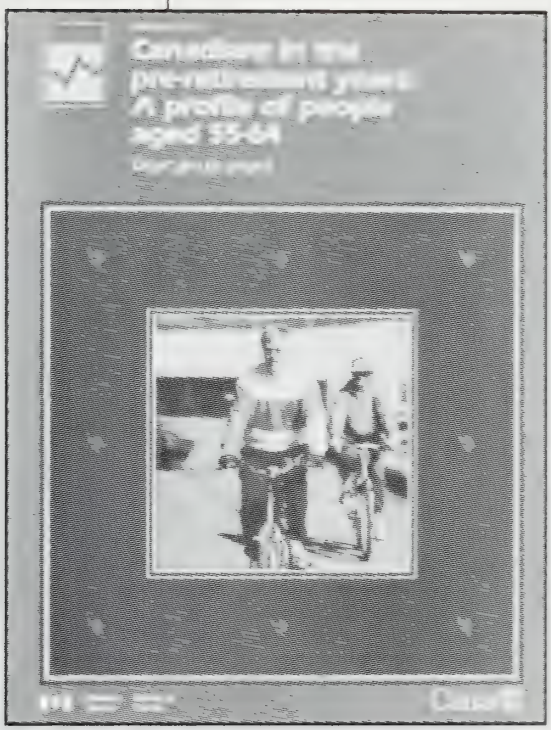
In 1988, parents themselves were the main source of care for 28% of all children under age 13. The employed parent most responsible for child care (usually the mother) looked after 9% of children while working, while 20% of children were cared for by that parent's partner to cover work or school hours. It is likely that many parents arrange their work schedules so as to be able to care for their children themselves. In 1988, 45% of employed parents primarily responsible for child care arrangements worked weekends, evenings or irregular hours. For these people, the availability of child care outside of daytime, weekday hours may be critical to their availability for jobs.

Babysitters and relatives are an important source of child care services, particularly for children under age 6. For example, in 1988, babysitters were the main source of care for 37% of children under age 3 and 31% of those aged 3-5. Reliance on a relative was the main child care arrangement for 24% of children under age 3 and 16% of those aged 3-5. Among children aged 6-12, babysitters were the main care giver for 16%, and relatives, for 11%.

School-aged children tended to rely more on themselves or on a sibling, or had no specific arrangements. In 1988, 23% of children this age either looked after themselves or were looked after by a sibling. No formal child care arrangement outside of school was necessary for another 16%.

[1] For additional information, see *Parental Work Patterns and Child Care Needs*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-529, by D.S. Lero, H. Goelman, A.R. Pence, L.M. Brockman and S. Nuttall.

The Pre-Retirement Years... An Age of Transition



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ALIMONY AND CHILD SUPPORT

by Diane Galarneau



The adequacy of the present system for determining alimony and child support is becoming a subject of increasing debate as the number of lone-parent families grows. Most of these families are mothers and their children, who generally are more financially disadvantaged than men following a marital separation or divorce.

According to tax data, alimony and child support payments averaged almost $4,900 in 1990 (about $400 per month). These payments accounted for 14% of female recipients' total family income, but just 9% of the total family income of men paying alimony and child support. Overall, most women who reported receiving alimony payments on their tax returns were lone mothers. In addition, they were younger and more likely to have young children than were other women.

Support payments

The 1968 Divorce Act distinguishes between orders for support payments for spouses and those for children. Amendments made in 1985 recognize that spouses have a joint financial obligation to maintain the child, and that this obligation should be apportioned between the spouses according to their relative abilities to contribute. In awarding child support, the court must take into consideration the circumstances of the parents and children. These include the length of time the spouses lived together, the functions performed by the spouses during their time together, and, any order, agreement or arrangement relating to support of the spouse or child.

Amendments also state that the financial ties between the former spouses are to be limited as far as possible. As a result, the number of both support orders for fixed time periods and cases in which no order was granted has risen. Middle-aged women who were not in the workforce while married and women in their thirties and forties with post-divorce custody of their children appear to be especially negatively affected by this objective of economic self-sufficiency. For example, it is possible that fixed-period support orders may not give women with custody of their children adequate time to acquire the skills or knowledge necessary to become self-supporting.

Recipients and payers

According to family-based tax data, of the 11.5 million family units[1] in Canada in 1990, 265,000 (2.3%) women in these units reported receiving alimony. The total amount claimed was $1.3 billion, an average of $4,900. In the same year, 312,000 men reported paying $1.5 billion in alimony, an average amount of $4,800.

The differences between the number of recipients and payers, and between the amounts received and paid, are likely due to under-reporting by recipients. Some recipients may not have reported receiving payments for a variety of reasons: they did not file a tax return; their incomes consisted solely of welfare payments, mothers' allowance or other non-taxable — and consequently unreported — benefits; and some recipients were living abroad. At the same time, an incentive exists for payers to report regular alimony payments because such payments are tax-deductible.

Characteristics of recipients

Most recipients of alimony payments were lone mothers and their children (64%). In comparison, almost all men who paid

[1] Includes people whose tax returns did not indicate the presence of a spouse or dependent child.

What is alimony?

According to Revenue Canada, alimony is an amount paid for the maintenance of a spouse (whether legal or common-law), former spouse, or any children of the marriage or common-law union. Spouses must be living apart when the payment is made and throughout the remainder of the year, and must be separated pursuant to a divorce, judicial separation or written separation agreement. Alimony is tax-deductible if it is paid periodically. Lump-sum payments made as a result of the dissolution of a marriage are not deductible and, therefore, do not appear in tax data.

The tax data used in this article do not distinguish between support payments made on behalf of the former spouse and those made on behalf of children. Since the current trend in divorce cases favours financial self-sufficiency of former spouses, it is possible that support payments are now being paid more often on behalf of children than of a spouse.

It is also not known how many children each payment covers. This can be important in cases of blended families which include children from both a previous and the current marriage. Even if payments are made solely on behalf of children from the previous marriage, tax data indicate only the total number of children in the new family and the amount paid.

In the case of joint custody, certain expenses related to the children are apportioned between the former spouses, who take turns maintaining them. Such expenses are in the form of clothing, food or leisure, and are not included in this article.

Finally, a support order, in itself, does not guarantee that payments will be made. Tax data disclose only the amounts reported to Revenue Canada, and not those that should be paid. In Ontario, a recent estimate indicates that there are 90,000 unpaid support orders, representing $470 million in delinquent payments (Canadian HR Reporter, 1991).

Although some men receive alimony, it is uncommon. According to tax data, men represented just 2% of those receiving such payments in 1990. As a result, recipient men have been excluded from this analysis. Thus, the term "recipients" refers only to women who indicated on their tax returns that they had received support payments, whether those payments were made on their own behalf or on behalf of their child(ren). Similarly, data referring to those paying alimony or child support (payers) includes only men.

Current legislation

The federal Divorce Act applies to support orders resulting from divorce while the provinces and territories have jurisdiction over legal or de facto separations. The rules for determining support payments, however, are vague. As a result, judicial decisions in these cases tend to be arbitrary.

Currently, a joint federal-provincial-territorial project is establishing rules for determining child support payments. These new rules will standardize the amounts granted throughout the country, in addition to overcoming several weaknesses of the present system.

At the provincial level, efforts are being made to ensure that support payments are made. For example, some provinces have automatic enforcement systems for alimony payments. Ontario's Bill 17, effective March 1, 1992, implements stricter support payment enforcement measures than other provinces. Employers must withhold alimony payments from the wages of employees delinquent in their payments. These deductions are obligatory, like those required for Unemployment Insurance or the Canada Pension Plan.

alimony were either unattached (47%) or had remarried and were in a husband-wife family (46%).

Overall, women receiving alimony payments tend to be younger than other women. In 1990, 75% of recipients were aged 25-44, and 20% were 45 and older. In contrast, just 49% of all other women were aged 25-44, while 42% were 45 and older. The exception to this pattern was women who were not living with a spouse or dependent children and were receiving support payments. In 1990, nearly 87% were aged 45 and over.

Families receiving alimony payments had more young children than did all other families. In 1990, 38% of lone mothers receiving support payments had two children under age 18, compared with 21% of other lone mothers. Husband-wife families in which the mother was receiving alimony were the most likely to have three or more children under age 18 (23%). This is likely due, in part, to the phenomena of blended families. In comparison, 9% of other husband-wife families had at least three young children.

Family income and alimony

Overall, the family income of women receiving alimony payments is lower than that of men who are making such payments. Part of this gap is attributable to the income differences between women and men in general. However, the difference was greater between the average income of those receiving and those paying alimony, than for the population as a whole.

In 1990, recipients' average family income was $35,300, compared with $55,400 for payers. Among both groups, however, income varied considerably by family type. Among alimony recipients, women living without a spouse or dependent children and lone mothers had average family incomes of $21,800 and $26,800, respectively. The average family income of women (who were remarried) living in a husband-wife family was much higher ($60,600). In contrast, the average family income of men paying alimony ranged from $40,300 for those living without a spouse or dependent children to $70,800 for those (who were remarried) in a husband-wife family.

Alimony payments also vary considerably by family type. Those with the lowest average family income tended to receive the most support. Annual payments were highest for women living without a spouse or dependent children, averaging $7,900 in 1990. Support dropped to $4,800 for lone mothers and to $3,900 for women in husband-wife families. On the other hand, men's alimony payments averaged about the same amount ($4,800), regardless of their family situation.

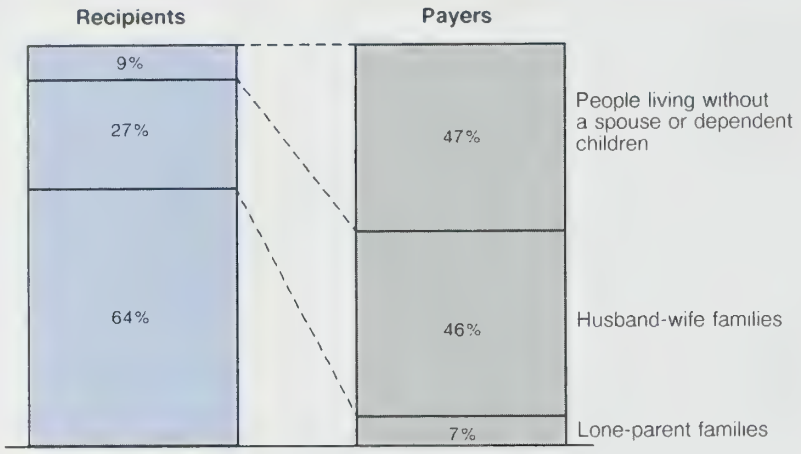
Support payments accounted for varying proportions of recipients' income, depending on family status. Women living without a spouse or children were most dependent, by far, on alimony. In 1990, support payments accounted for 36% of these women's average family income. At the same time, such payments represented 18% of lone-parent family income and just 6% of the family income of women living in husband-wife families.

Alimony and presence of children

Alimony payments received are highest for families with no children under age 18.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Alimony recipients and payers, 1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

Average family income and alimony payments of payers and recipients, 1990

	Average	
	Family income	Alimony
	$	
Male payers	55,400	4,800
Female recipients	35,300	4,900
Lone-parent families	**26,800**	**4,800**
With:No children under age 18	40,400	7,400
One child[1]	25,800	3,800
Two children[1]	26,000	5,100
Three or more children[1]	24,600	5,500
Husband-wife families	**60,600**	**3,900**
With:No children under age 18	70,000	4,900
One child[1]	61,800	3,200
Two children[1]	59,600	4,000
Three or more children[1]	56,900	4,200
Women without a spouse or dependent children	**21,800**	**7,900**

[1] Includes only children under age 18.
Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

For lone-parent families with older children, payments averaged $7,400 in 1990. At the same time, average payments to women in husband-wife families with no children under 18 were $4,900.

Among families with children, support payments increase with the number of children under age 18. In 1990, among lone-parent families, payments ranged from $3,800 for those with one child to $5,500 for those with three or more children. Similarly, payments ranged from $3,200 to $4,200 for mothers with young children in husband-wife families.

Sources of income

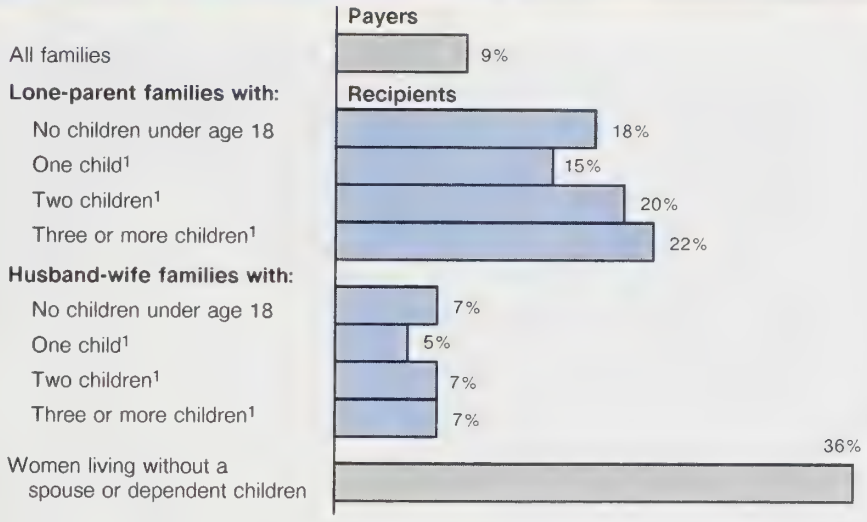
Sources of income differed substantially among recipients and non-recipients, because of the presence of alimony payments. Among non-recipient lone-parent and husband-wife families, earnings (including Unemployment Insurance benefits) represented the largest share of income. In 1990, about two-thirds of the income of lone-parent families and four-fifths of that of husband-wife families came from earnings.

Families not receiving alimony rely much more on Social Assistance[2] and other income than do those receiving support payments. For example, in 1990, Social Assistance made up 17% of the income of lone-parent families not receiving alimony, compared with 11% for recipients. Similarly, among husband-wife families, other income such as pensions and rental and investment income accounted for 18% of total family income for those not receiving support payments, but only 7% of the income of alimony recipients.

In 1990, women living without a spouse or dependent children and receiving alimony derived a smaller proportion of their family income from employment than did non-recipients (37% compared with 52%). This is due in large part to the heavier concentration of older women among those receiving support payments. Many of these women may not have participated in the labour market because family obligations and traditional expectations had kept them at home while they were married, with the result that lifelong support payments were probably essential. Income from other sources such as pensions, investments and rental property made up 42% of non-recipients' family income, in contrast to 24% of recipients' family income.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

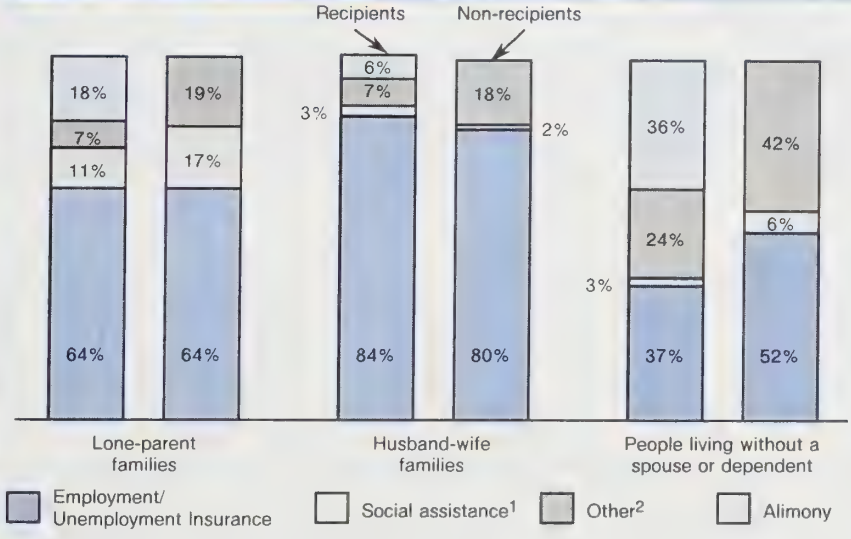
Alimony as a percentage of payers' and recipients' family income, 1990



1 Includes only children under age 18.
Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Sources of income, by family type, 1990



1 Includes non-taxable benefits such as welfare and Mothers' Allowance.
2 Includes pension, investment and rental income, and Family Allowance.
Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

[2] Social Assistance includes non-taxable payments such as welfare and Mothers' Allowance. Other income includes investment, pension and rental income, and Family Allowance. Non-recipient lone-parent families include approximately 2% of women aged 65 and over, eligible for pension income, along with 25% of widows who do not receive support payments.

• This article was updated and adapted from "Alimony and Child Support" by Diane Galarneau, *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Summer 1992, Catalogue 75-001E.

Diane Galarneau *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE IN CANADA

by Roger Roberge Jr.



Almost all working Canadians are covered by Canada's Unemployment Insurance program that can provide temporary income security in the event of a job separation. During the recessions of the early 1980s and 1990s, many Canadians had a first-hand encounter with the system. For example, in 1991, 3.66 million individuals received Unemployment Insurance (U.I.) benefits. That year, anywhere from 8% to 12% of people in the labour force were receiving U.I. benefits each month, collecting a total of $17.7 billion (2.6% of the Gross Domestic Product). Employees and employers contributed almost $14.8 billion to the U.I. program in 1991.

Benefits paid for a variety of reasons

Various types of Unemployment Insurance benefits are available, although people make most claims under the regular benefits category. In 1991, the 12-month average number of regular beneficiaries[1] was 1.16 million, accounting for 85% of people receiving Unemployment Insurance that year.[2] The number of regular benefit recipients was even higher than the previous peak reached during the recession of the early 1980s (1.12 million in 1983), and almost double the 604,000 recipients in 1980. In 1976, there had been 627,000 people receiving regular benefits.

The number of regular beneficiaries as a proportion of the total labour force (which includes people employed as well as those out of a job and looking for work) generally reflects the cyclical nature of the economy. During the recession of the early 1980s, the proportion of labour force participants collecting U.I. benefits peaked at just over 9% in 1983. Thereafter, the proportion declined until 1989, but remained higher than at any time during the 1970s. By 1991, it was once again approaching the 1983 figure.

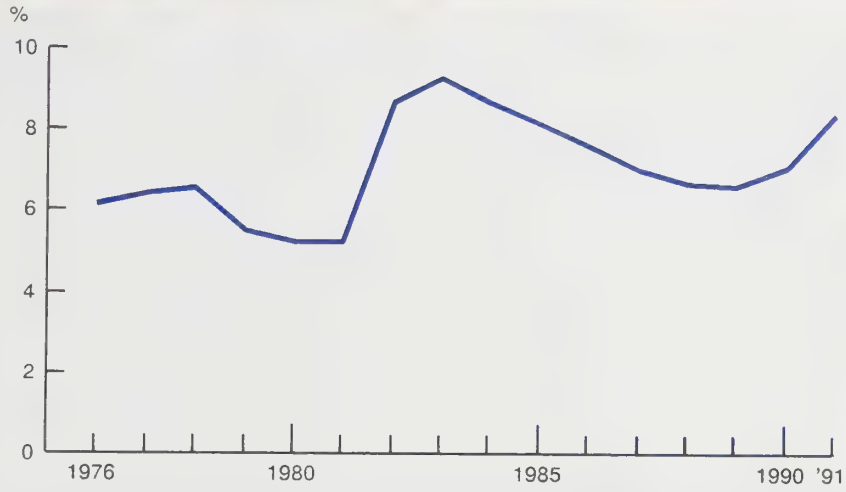
Other forms of U.I. assistance include maternity, parental/adoption and sickness benefits, fishing benefits, and work sharing, training and job creation allowances. In 1991, the 84,000 people (12-month average) receiving maternity and parental/adoption benefits accounted for 6.2% of U.I. beneficiaries that year. The number of people receiving such benefits was up sharply from 35,000 in 1980 and from the 1976 level of 28,000. This trend was due in large part to increased numbers of women in the labour force, particularly those of child-bearing age, and improved coverage. Sickness benefits were paid to 31,000 (2.3%) beneficiaries.

[1] A beneficiary does not necessarily represent a unique individual. A person can collect benefits more than once a year.

[2] Throughout this article, the counts for beneficiaries represent 12-month averages.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Regular beneficiaries[1] as a percentage of labour force, 1976-1991



[1] A beneficiary does not necessarily represent a unique individual. A person can collect benefits more than once a year.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-201 and 73-202S.

U.I. benefits, 1991

Benefit type	Number of beneficiaries	Benefits paid	Number of weeks paid	Average weekly payment
	%	$ Millions	Milllions	$
Regular	84.6	14,783.3	60.4	244.50
Sickness	2.3	409.6	1.6	248.50
Maternity/ Parental	6.2	1,136.8	4.2	260.70 323.10
Fishing	1.3	287.0	0.8	352.40
Work Sharing	2.7	160.1	1.9	80.50
Training	2.5	803.7	2.0	267.90
Job Creation	0.4	114.9	0.3	384.90

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 73-202S.



In 1991, 17,000 people (1.3% of all beneficiaries) received fishing benefits that are region specific. Although people in every province received fishing benefits, those in the Atlantic provinces combined received 72% of all fishing benefits paid in 1991, with residents of Newfoundland alone receiving 34% of the national total. British Columbia residents received 21% of all fishing benefits paid, and those in all other provinces combined, 7%.

Work sharing, training, and job creation benefits have received more emphasis in recent years. Still, just 6% of all beneficiaries received payments under these programs in 1991. That year, 36,600 people received work sharing benefits and 34,600, training benefits. Job creation beneficiaries numbered 5,700 in 1991.

Age of beneficiaries increasing

Regular benefit recipients are becoming more concentrated in the older age groups. One of the major reasons for this is the aging of the population overall, and the concentration of the baby-boom generation in these older age groups. Still, over one-half (56%) were under age 35 in 1991. The proportion of people under age 25 receiving regular benefits dropped to 19% in 1991 from an average of 37% in the 1970s. In contrast, by 1991, the proportion of those aged 25-44 had increased to almost 60% from 41% over the same period.

Many families receiving U.I.

According to 1990 tax-filer data[3], 28% of Canadian husband-wife families, a total of nearly 1.8 million families, reported receiving some form of U.I. benefits that year. Similarly, about one-quarter of lone-parent families (representing 258,000 families) received such benefits through either the parent or an older child living with the parent. Of these U.I. recipients, 56% were female lone parents. Also in 1990, 15% (625,000 people) of those who lived without a spouse or children received U.I. benefits.

Those with lower incomes more likely to receive U.I.

Not surprisingly, people with lower incomes often have less secure jobs and are more likely to receive U.I. benefits. In 1989, for example, people with an annual income of less than $25,000 received 80% of all benefits paid out. This proportion had remained fairly constant over the 1980s. This is not at all unusual as unemployment rates also tend to be much

[3] Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

Benefits available under the Unemployment Insurance program

The Unemployment Insurance (U.I.) program is designed to provide temporary income protection to workers who are separated from their jobs through events such as lay-offs, dismissal, voluntary leave, sickness or maternity. While most benefits are paid directly to unemployed people, the U.I. program, through its training programs, also helps workers adapt their skills to meet changing work force demands without placing an overwhelming financial burden on them.

Regular benefits are the most common type of claim filed and are paid out in the event of job termination, lay-off or the person quitting. The length of time for which a person can be covered ranges from 17 to 50 weeks, depending on the regional unemployment rate and the number of weeks of insurable employment.

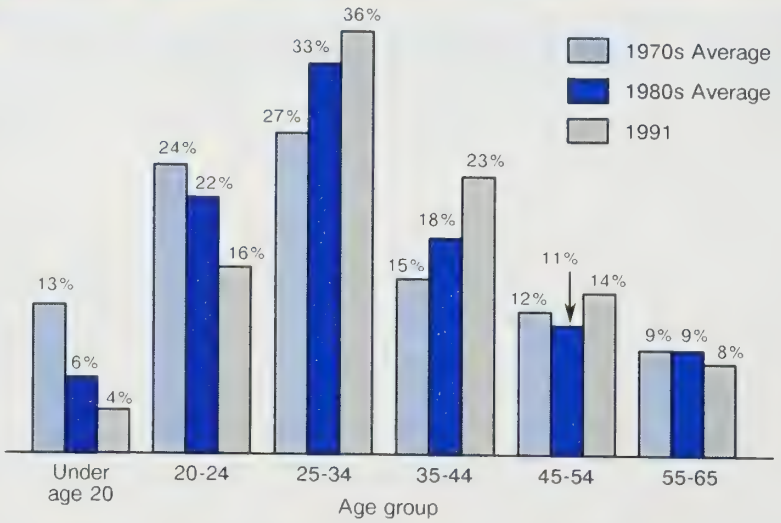
A second category of benefits relates to family (maternity and parental/adoption) and sickness. Maternity benefits can be paid up to a maximum 15 weeks to a mother following the birth of a child. Parental/adoption benefits allow a claim of up to 10 weeks for the mother or father individually, or shared between both parents, in the case of a newborn or adopted child. Maternity and parental benefits can be combined, allowing a mother to remain at home for 25 weeks. Sickness benefits are paid to people whose earnings are interrupted due to illness, injury or quarantine. A person can claim up to 15 weeks under this benefit type. Retirement benefits were also included in this category until their elimination at the end of 1990.

U.I. also provides coverage for seasonal and year-round fishermen who have at least six insured weeks as a fisherman. When U.I. fishing benefits are exhausted, however, the federal government may extend special regional benefits.

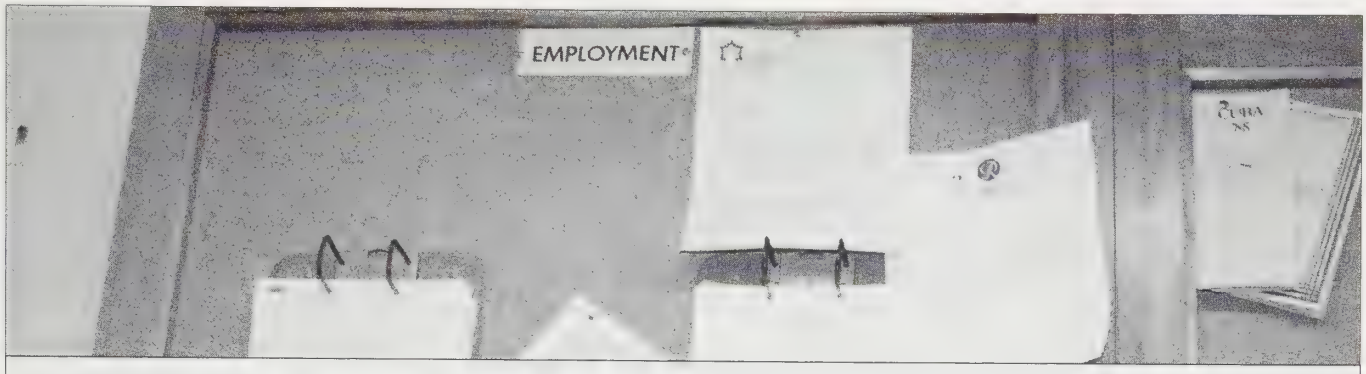
The other types of benefit payments are directed at maintaining existing employment, providing training and creating new jobs. For example, work sharing benefits can be drawn by employees who agree to share jobs to avoid temporary unemployment during difficult economic times. With job sharing, all employees are given the option of reduced working hours, thus allowing the employer to retain all workers with the shortfall in earnings partially offset by benefit payments. Claimants of job creation benefits are paid through the U.I. program rather than by their employer, while they are learning new skills through on-the-job experience. Such benefits can be claimed for a maximum of 58 weeks. Also aimed at providing new skills to unemployed workers, the training program benefit offers courses approved by Employment and Immigration Canada. Benefits can be paid to a maximum of 156 weeks.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Age distribution of regular beneficiaries, 1970s, 1980s and 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, CANSIM, Matrix 5706.



Evolution of Unemployment Insurance in Canada

Unemployment Insurance in Canada became an official federal government program on August 7, 1940 with the passage of the Unemployment Insurance Act. Prior to 1940, responsibility for assistance to the unemployed rested primarily with provincial and municipal governments, with some funding provided by the federal government on an ad hoc basis. The original U.I. Act was administered by the Unemployment Insurance Commission and the first premiums were collected from eligible workers in July, 1941. The first benefits were paid out to qualified insured workers in January, 1942.

The initial U.I. Act of 1940 was modeled after the British unemployment insurance system. The one major difference between the two programs was that the British program paid a flat rate benefit regardless of person's prior income level or contribution rate, whereas the Canadian program made benefits a function of prior earnings up to a maximum amount.

Initially, only those occupations considered to have a high risk of unemployment were covered under the program. Key sectors such as agriculture, forestry, fishing, transportation (air & water), teaching, armed forces, police, civil servants (federal, provincial and municipal) and seasonal workers in general, were excluded from coverage. In its first year of operation, 159,000 employers registered with the Unemployment Insurance Commission and almost 2.5 million employees (42% of the labour force) were covered. Minor adjustments to the U.I. plan during the 1940s increased coverage to 50% of the labour force.

A major restructuring of the program occurred with the passage of the Unemployment Insurance Act of 1955. In addition to changes to benefit payments and eligibility, the Act increased coverage to include most seasonal workers such as those in the fishing and agricultural sectors. The addition of seasonal workers effectively ended the concept of an insurance program based on actuarial principles. Payments of benefits on a regular basis to certain unemployed groups transformed U.I. into more of a social welfare program, in some instances, than strictly an insurance program. During the 1960s, the U.I. program improved benefits and increased coverage, and by the end of the decade, 68% of the labour force was insured.

In June, 1970, the federal government tabled the White Paper on Unemployment Insurance proposing major changes to the program. Most of the proposed changes were incorporated into Bill C-229 and passed in June, 1971. Bill C-229 introduced the concept of universality and coverage of the labour force was increased to 96% where it has remained. Only people aged 70 or over, self-employed people, and individuals earning less than one-fifth of the maximum weekly insurable earnings were not covered. In addition to universality, benefit categories were added for maternity, sickness and retirement. The length of benefit payments became a function of both the number of insured weeks employed prior to job loss and regional unemployment rates.

The changes to the U.I. Act in the early 1970s occurred during a time of relative economic prosperity and low unemployment. By the mid-1970s, however, high unemployment, inflation and budget deficits led the government to adopt a policy of fiscal restraint. The level of benefits paid was reduced from 66 2/3% of weekly insurable earnings to 60% by the end of the 1970s in an effort to reduce program costs.

During this period, the government created a new benefit category for training. The inclusion of this benefit was the first time the U.I. program took an active role in trying to reduce unemployment. The training benefit provides assistance to claimants to help facilitate finding a full-time, permanent position.

Several changes to the U.I. Act occurred during the 1980s. A benefit category was added for parents adopting a child. Also, women were no longer required to prove that they had been working for a least ten weeks prior to conception in order to qualify for maternity benefits. Work sharing and job creation benefit categories were also created in an attempt to help decrease unemployment. During this time, the federal government gradually reduced its financial responsibility for the program.

Another major change to the U.I. program occurred in 1990 with the passage of Bill C-21. This bill again reflected the prevailing environment of fiscal restraint in which the U.I. program had experienced several years of large deficits. Waiting periods, changes in eligibility and the duration for which benefits are paid, were all adjusted. The federal government also eliminated its regular financial contributions to the U.I. program. In the event of a deficit, the federal government would advance a loan, repayable at market interest rates, to cover any program shortfalls.

Late in 1992, additional changes to the U.I. program were proposed. The government proposed to freeze the Unemployment Insurance premium rate for 1993 at the 1992 level and to introduce a proposal to freeze the amount of benefits paid. It will also introduce a proposal to disqualify people who quit their jobs without "just cause" or are fired for misconduct.

higher amongst individuals with lower incomes. In fact, people with very low incomes of $10,000 to $14,999 received 24% of all U.I. benefits that year.

People with annual incomes of $30,000 and over contributed more than one-half (54%) of all premiums. Those with incomes between $30,000 and $39,999 accounted for 24% of all premium payments.

Initial and renewal U.I. claims

In 1991, 3.9 million Unemployment Insurance claims were filed. The majority (83%) were initial claims, while the remaining 17% were renewals. Of the total number of claims, 1.2 million were disqualified or disentitled, most of which ultimately were allowed. The approval rate for initial claims was 92% and for renewal claims, 99.7%, resulting in a total of 3.6 million allowed claims.

Of the major reasons reported for the disqualification or disentitlement of claims, 34% were because the claimant was not unemployed or no interruption of earnings had occurred, 18% of claimants were not capable of or not available for work, and 14% had benefits temporarily disqualified because they had voluntarily quit. Other reasons for disqualification included incomplete documentation, misconduct, labour dispute involvement, refusal of suitable work, and failure to search for work. The proportion of disqualifications or disentitlements remained fairly constant over the 1980s.

U.I. program costly during 1980s

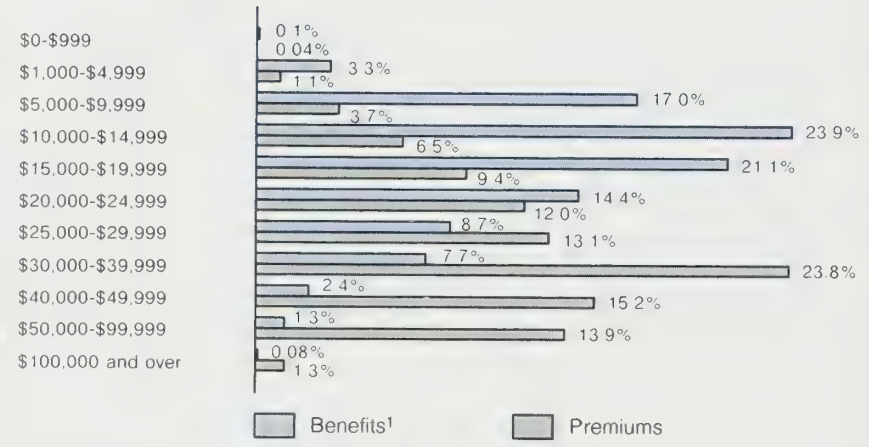
During the 1980s, the U.I. account ran large annual deficits. Large deficits between 1982 and 1984 resulted in negative ending balances for most of the 1980s. Until 1990, employers, employees and the federal government were financially responsible for the U.I. program. Since 1990, however, new U.I. legislation discontinued federal contributions.

In 1991, U.I. premiums generated $14.8 billion in revenue. That year, for the first time, there were no federal contributions to the program, whereas in 1990, such contributions amounted to $2.4 billion or 15% of all revenue. General expenditures in 1991 reached $19 billion, $17.7 billion of which was accounted for by benefit payments. Administration of the program accounted for an additional $1.2 billion and overdue loans accounted for the remaining $105 million.

Roger Roberge Jr. *is an analyst with the Social and Economic Studies Division, Statistics Canada.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

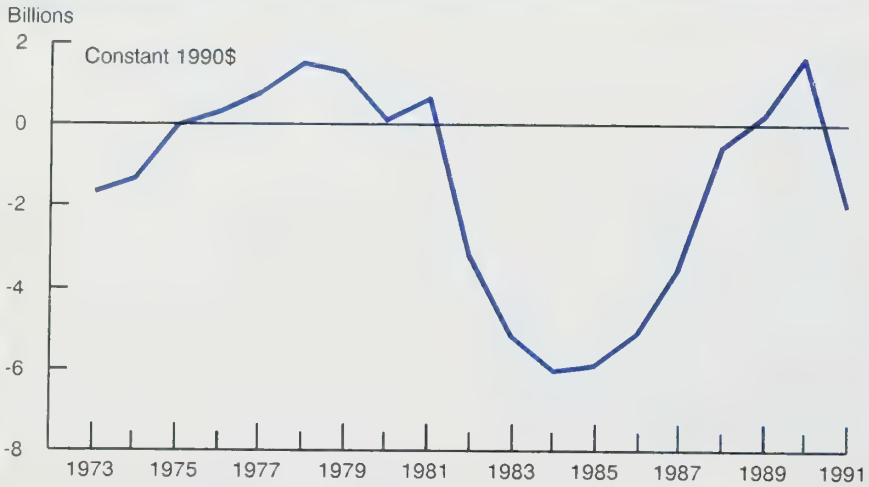
Percentage distribution of U.I. benefits and premiums, by income, 1989



[1] Individuals could have received benefits and paid premiums during the year.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 73-202S.

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Year end balance in the Unemployment Insurance account, 1973-1991



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 73-202S.

ENVIRONMENTAL PRACTICES OF CANADIAN HOUSEHOLDS

by Leslie Geran

Going green can take time, money, and personal commitment. For Canadian households, these and other factors influence the decision to use products or engage in practices that have, or are perceived to have, positive effects on the environment. While these factors can have varying degrees of influence on people depending on their income, there is no clear indication that any one particular income group is "greener" than any other.

Access to recycling programs

According to the 1991 Household Environment Survey, about one-half of households had access to recycling programs for paper, metal cans and glass bottles. High-income households, however, were more likely than low-income households to have access to such programs. For example, in 1991, two-thirds (66%) of households with an average annual income[1] of $55,000 or more had access to curbside recycling or recycling depots for paper, compared with 41% of those whose income was less than $20,000.

This pattern reflects differences in the presence of recycling services in various communities, and the provision of services to different types of dwellings. About one-third of rural households had access to recycling programs, compared with over 55% of those in urban centres of at least 100,000 people. Also, "blue box" recycling programs are often not available to apartments, where average household income is typically not as high as in suburban communities with owner-occupied single-family

[1] Income figures in this article refer to 1990 annual income.

Measuring participation

In order to gauge household participation in recycling programs, respondents to the 1991 Household Environment Survey were first asked if the household had access to curbside recycling or recycling depots for a number of different materials such as paper or household hazardous products. The respondent was allowed to interpret the meaning of access. Only those respondents who said they had access were asked a second question on whether the household used the recycling service.

For example, there were an estimated 9,873,000 households in Canada in 1991. Among the 5,198,000 households that had access to paper recycling, an estimated 4,462,000 used the service. In this article, access proportions are calculated among total households. Use proportions are calculated among households with access to the service. For paper recycling, 53% of households had access to this service, and 86% of those households used the service.

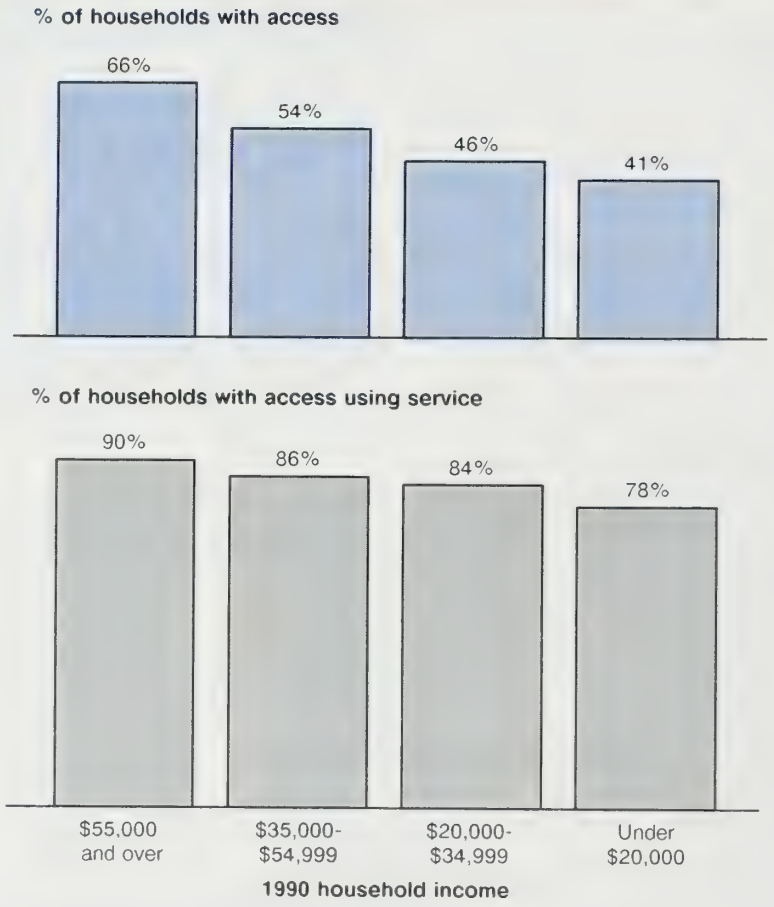
Survey notes

Data used in this article are from surveys administered by the Household Surveys Division of Statistics Canada. The Household Environment Survey was conducted in May 1991 and included 43,000 households. Some results from this survey were published in *Households and the Environment, 1991* (Catalogue 11-526). Data from the Household Environment Survey were coupled with data from the Labour Force Survey, the Survey of Consumer Finances, the Household Facilities and Equipment Survey and the Rent Survey which were administered to the same households, resulting in a rich database of environment, demographic, labour force, housing, and household facilities information on which analysis may be conducted.

The Health Promotion Survey was administered to 13,800 Canadians aged 15 years and older in June 1990. The survey was carried out by Statistics Canada for Health and Welfare Canada. Further results from the survey may be obtained from the Health Promotion Directorate of Health and Welfare Canada in Ottawa.

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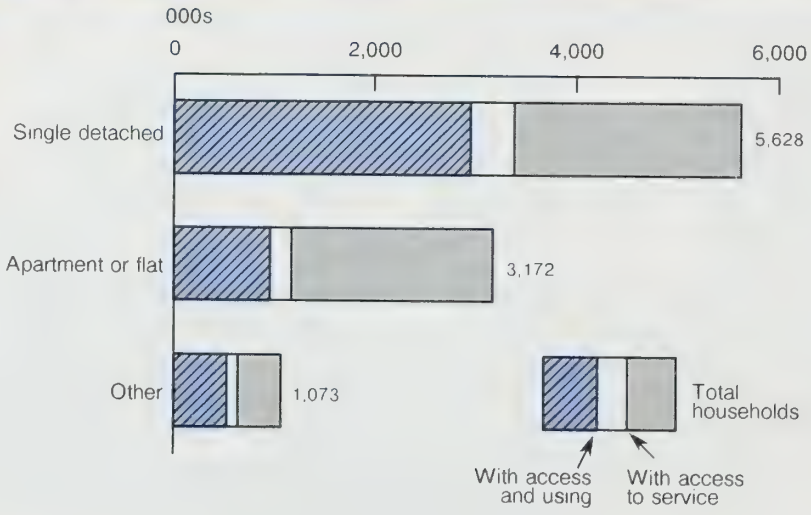
Households and paper recycling services, by income, 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Household Environment Survey, unpublished data.

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Paper recycling services, by type of dwelling, 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Household Environment Survey, unpublished data.



dwellings. About 60% of households in single detached dwellings had access to paper recycling services, compared with 37% of households in apartments.

Compared to the number of households with access to recycling programs, fewer had access to special disposal programs for hazardous materials such as paints, solvents and other household chemicals. Such programs are typically not available at the curbside, but instead involve some effort on the part of the household, such as taking the chemicals to a central depot or local fire station. In 1991, 26% of Canadian households reported having access to special disposal programs. Households with an average annual income of $55,000 or more were much more likely (at 37%) than those with an income of less than $20,000 (17%) to say that they had access to such programs. The concept of access, however, can be interpreted in very different ways. For instance, although a recycling service may have been present in the community, if the survey respondent felt he or she could not get to it because of transportation difficulties, then the respondent may have answered that this service was unavailable. This interpretation may have been more prevalent among householders with low incomes, since only 56% of households with an average annual income of less than $20,000 owned a vehicle in 1991, compared with 95% of households with an income of $55,000 or more.

Use of recycling programs

Most Canadian households with access to recycling programs made use of these services. High-income households, however, were more likely than those with low incomes to participate in recycling programs. Among households with access to paper recycling, 90% with an income of $55,000 or more used the service, compared with 78% of those whose income was less than $20,000.

Fewer households used special disposal programs for hazardous materials (52%), although use increased with income. Among households with access to these services, 56% of households with an income of $55,000 or more used special disposal programs, compared with 40% of households with an income of less than $20,000.

Shopping trends

Although households with high incomes were more likely than low-income households to use recycling programs, high-income households likely had more to recycle. Expenditures on most household goods and services increase with income. This is not only because of the greater number of people, on average, in high-income households, but also because consumption patterns vary by income. For

example, people with higher incomes are more likely than others to purchase reading material and other printed matter, some of which may be recycled. According to the Survey of Family Expenditures, households with an annual income of less than $20,000 spent, on average, $122 in 1990 on reading material, compared with $405 for those with an income of $55,000 or more.

Average expenditure on carbonated beverages and canned vegetables, as well as household cleaning supplies, also increased with income. Waste from some of these products can be disposed of using metal can or plastic recycling programs or through special facilities for hazardous wastes.

Expenditure on paper, plastic and foil household supplies also increased with income. Households with an income of less than $20,000 spent, on average, $149 per year on these products, compared with $345 per year by high-income households. Some of these products were made from recycled content. According to the Household Environment Survey, proportionately more high-income households regularly bought paper products such as paper towels and toilet paper made with recycled content. Almost one-half (47%) of the high-income households regularly bought these products, compared with 39% of the low-income households.

Gardening practices

Over one-quarter (28%) of Canadian households with a lawn, garden or yard used chemical pesticides (including herbicides) in 1991, and just under one-half (45%) used chemical fertilizers. This includes chemicals applied by either commercial operators or household members. The use of such chemicals was considerably more common among high-income than among low-income households. Among households with a lawn, garden or yard, 36% with an annual income of $55,000 or more applied chemical pesticides within the 12 months preceding the 1991 survey, compared with 19% of those with an income of less than $20,000. The use of chemical fertilizers ranged from 57% among households in the highest income group to 30% among those in the lowest income group.

Composting was also a more prevalent activity for high-income households. One in four high-income households used a compost heap, container or composting service, compared with one in ten low-income households.

Water

Environmental practices can also affect the quality and quantity of water used in households. Over one-quarter (28%) of Canadian households in 1991 had a water-saving, low-flow or modified shower head, and 9% had a water-saving toilet tank. Fourteen percent of households used a drinking water filter or purifier, and a slightly higher proportion (16%) purchased bottled water for drinking. High-income households were more likely than low-income households to have these household facilities and purchase these products. For example, 38% of households with an annual income of $55,000 or more had a low-flow shower head, compared with 17% of households with an income of less than $20,000. High-income households were almost twice as likely as low-income households to use a drinking water filter (18% compared with 10%).

Diapers

In 1991, disposables were the diapers used all of the time by most (63%) households with children under two years old. Two out of three (66%) households with an income of less than $20,000 used disposables all of the time, compared with 60% of households with an income of $55,000 or more. About one in three (34%) high-income households (with children under two years) reported using disposable diapers most or some of the time, but only 26% of households in the low-income group.

Factors such as the relative prices of cloth diapers, disposables and diaper services, and the time and effort to wash diapers may enter into the decision of which type of diaper to use. Washing cloth diapers is more difficult for low-income households with children, as 29% of these households did not have an electric washing machine in their household in 1991. Only 3% of the high-income households did not have this appliance.

Leslie Geran *is an analyst with the Household Surveys Division, Statistics Canada.*

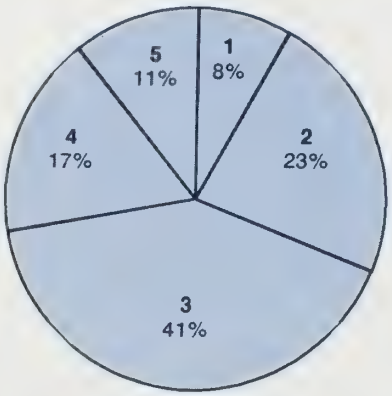
The environment and health

Economic factors are not the only motivations behind the behaviour of households in regards to the environment. The quality of the environment is also a health issue for many Canadians. In 1990, 72% of Canadians aged 15 years and over thought that environmental pollution had affected their health in some way, while 17% thought that their health had not been affected.

Canadians also thought that it was extremely important for the government to deal with environmental pollution. Environmental pollution ranked first in importance among 14 health issues including AIDS, drug use, heart disease, and eating habits.

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Health affected by environmental pollution



During the last 12 months, how much do you think that environmental pollution has affected your health?

1 Very much
2 A fair amount
3 Not very much
4 Not at all
5 Don't know/not stated

Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division, 1990 Health Promotion Survey, unpublished data.

ORGAN DONATION AND TRANSPLANTATION

by Jeffrey Frank

Medical advances over the past 30 years have transformed human organ transplantation from an experimental curiosity into an accepted form of medical treatment. As such, the numbers of transplant facilities and surgeons trained in transplantation are growing. Increased transplant capacity combined with the "greying" of the Canadian population have contributed to a serious shortage of human organs for use in transplant operations. The annual number of patients awaiting organ replacement is growing faster than the number of transplants performed each year.



Chronology of organ transplantation

1905-1951 — In Europe and in North America, various experiments (first with animals and later with humans) demonstrated that organ transplantation was possible.

1952 — The first kidney transplant, from mother to son, was performed in France. The 16-year-old recipient, however, died of organ rejection 22 days later.

1954 — American doctors performed the first successful kidney transplant between identical twin brothers. No anti-rejection drugs were used.

1958 — The first successful Canadian kidney transplant, also between identical twin brothers, was performed in Montreal.

— The discovery of "HLA" (a genetic marker) led to the creation of a tissue-matching system used to match donors and recipients. The system was not perfect, however, and organ rejection continued to be a major obstacle.

1967 — The first heart transplant was performed in South Africa. The 54-year-old male recipient lived for 18 days.

— The first liver, pancreas and lung transplants were performed.

— Many transplant operations ensued, but survival rates remained extremely low.

1971 — A Swiss pharmaceutical company discovered cyclosporin (a fungal extract that combats organ rejection). This development made transplants without ideal donors feasible.

— Testing of cyclosporin proceeded through the 1970s and early 1980s.

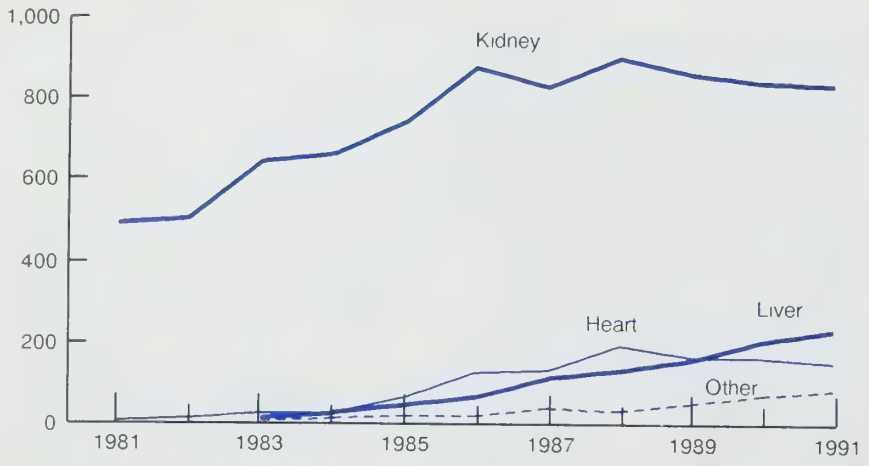
1983-84 — The U.S. Food and Drug Administration and the Health Protection Branch (Health and Welfare Canada) approved cyclosporin for general use.

— Widespread organ transplantation in North America began.

— Improvements in cyclosporin and other anti-rejection drugs continue to be made.

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Transplants performed in Canada, 1981-1991



Source: Canadian Organ Replacement Register.

Most donated organs for transplant come from people who have died, although kidneys may come from living donors. Many contributors had signed organ donor cards (often on their driver's licences) indicating their wish to donate some or all of their organs in the event of their death. Opinion polls have consistently shown that many Canadians are willing to donate their organs. Still, a relatively low proportion of potential donor organs are retrieved.

Two events are being held this year to raise public awareness of the shortage of organs and to encourage people to sign organ donor cards. First, April 18-25 has been designated International Organ Donor Awareness Week. Second, in June, Canada will host the 1993 World Transplant Games in Vancouver. The games feature athletes who are organ transplant recipients.

Why organ transplants?

For some patients, organ transplantation makes the difference between life and death. For others, the quality of their lives is improved. Organ transplantation may also save money. For example, a kidney transplant operation may cost less than long-term dialysis treatments. In addition, many transplant recipients are able to resume full and independent lives. Organ transplantation is highly successful, with an overall survival rate after one year of 90%.

More than 14,000 transplants performed

According to the Canadian Organ Replacement Register, by the end of 1991, 14,425 organ transplants had been performed in Canada since transplant programs began. Of these, 84% were kidney transplants, 7% were heart transplants, and 7% were liver transplants. About 3% of transplants were single lung, double lung, heart and lung, kidney and pancreas, or pancreas transplants.

Canadian Organ Replacement Register

The Canadian Organ Replacement Register (C.O.R.R.) provided the data presented in this article. A joint project of the federal and provincial governments, C.O.R.R. is a national information system on organ failure and transplantation. Its mandate is to record and analyze the level of activity and outcome of vital organ transplantation as well as renal dialysis activities. C.O.R.R. collects data through each dialysis and transplant unit across Canada, as well as through quarterly questionnaires submitted by each provincial transplant program.

Regionally, more than two-thirds of transplant operations were performed in Ontario (44%) and Quebec (24%). Another 9% were performed in Alberta, 8% in Atlantic Canada, 8% in British Columbia, and 4% in each of Manitoba and Saskatchewan. These proportions reflect not only population differences but also the availability and type of organ treatment facilities in each region. For example, both Manitoba and Saskatchewan have just one transplant facility where only kidney transplants are performed.

Kidney transplants most common

Renal or kidney failure is the most common reason for having an organ transplant operation. Of the 1,285 transplants performed in 1991, 831 (65%) were kidney transplants. This number was down slightly from a high of 901 kidney transplants in 1988. About 94% of kidney transplant recipients survive at least the first year after the operation. The patient survival rate is higher for kidney transplants than for other transplants because recipients can usually revert to dialysis if the new kidney fails.

Overall, the number of people entering kidney replacement therapy for every one million Canadians increased steadily over the past decade. There were 95 new patients for every million Canadians in 1991, a 93% increase from 49 in 1981. These people had been diagnosed with kidney disease and listed as candidates for organ replacement, but had not necessarily undergone a transplant operation.

Kidney replacement therapy patients older, more males

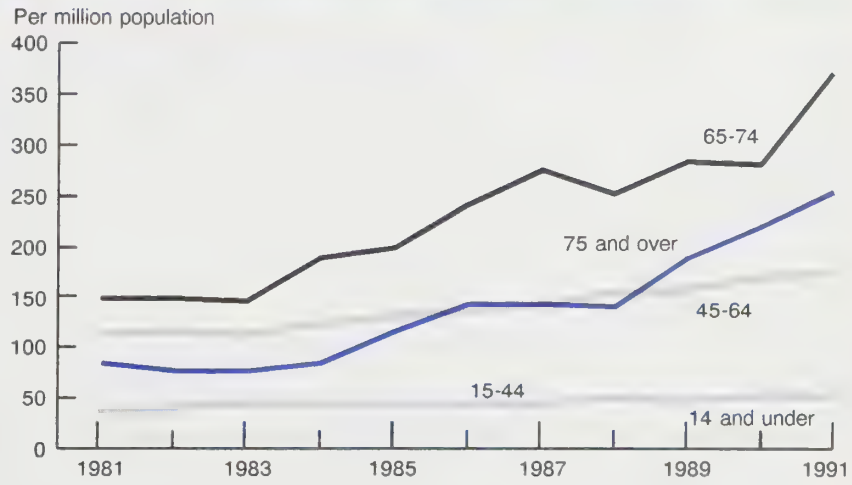
Older people are becoming increasingly more likely to enter renal replacement therapy than younger people. In 1991, 1,014 (40%) of the 2,568 newly registered kidney replacement therapy patients were aged 65 or older. In contrast, just 24% of patients were aged 65 or older in 1981. Also, males predominated in all age groups of new kidney replacement therapy patients, with an overall ratio of about three males for every two females in 1991.

The rates of older people entering renal replacement therapy have risen considerably since 1981, while the rates among those under age 15 (9 per million in 1991) and 15-44 (47 per million) have remained relatively stable. In 1991, there were 370 new transplant patients aged 65-74 for every million Canadians that age, a 154% increase from 146 in 1981. Similarly, among those aged 75 or older, there were



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New kidney replacement therapy patients, by age at registration, 1981-1991



Source: Canadian Organ Replacement Register.

244 new transplant patients for every million people that age in 1991, a 192% increase from 84 in 1981.

Number of liver transplants increasing

The number of liver transplants performed has also increased, rising to 228 in 1991, from just 10 in 1983. In 1991, children under age 15 represented about 20% of those receiving liver transplants, while people aged 45-64 accounted for 42%. Slightly more males than females received liver transplants in 1991.

The one year survival rate for liver transplant recipients is 78%. Of all people who had ever had a liver transplant in Canada, 64% were still alive at the end of 1990. Among patients who die, most succumb during the first three months following a first or second transplant, usually because of infection or organ rejection.

Fewer heart transplants due to lack of donors

In 1991, 149 heart transplants were performed, down from 187 in 1988. The reduction in the number of such transplants was due to a serious shortage of donors. In 1991, most heart transplant recipients were male (78%) and most were aged 45-64 (64%) and 15-44 (28%). This is not surprising given the high incidence of heart disease among middle-aged men. The survival rate for heart transplant recipients is 80% after one year, and 67% after seven years.

Waiting lists growing

Transplant programs are relatively new. With increased numbers of trained surgeons and transplant facilities, transplantation capacity has expanded. Moreover, improvements in drugs that fight rejection have made organ replacement a viable option for a growing number of patients.

The supply of organs for transplantation, particularly kidneys and hearts, has risen more slowly than demand. The extent of the demand for organs is reflected in the growing number of people on transplant waiting lists. The number of patients waiting for a kidney transplant, for example, exceeded 2,000 in September, 1992. Also, waiting list figures understate the demand for organs because they do not include all potential recipients, and exclude those who died before a suitable donor organ could be found.

Donors from various sources

People who suffer brain death in hospital and who are free of cancer are often ideal organ donors. In fact, organs are retrieved most often through the consent of a deceased person's family members. Families, however, often do not know the wishes of the deceased. Also, relying on familial consent after death is not always effective, because health care staff may not have the time or the appropriate training to approach grieving families.

Many people identify themselves as willing to donate organs by signing and carrying organ donor cards. In 1988, about 26% of Canadians had signed donor cards, up from just 12% in 1978. A 1991 study of Ontario residents estimated that 38% had signed organ donor cards, up from 28% in 1984. Although a signed donor card is considered to be a legal document, hospitals will not retrieve an organ over the objections of the family. It is important, therefore, for potential donors to discuss organ donation with their families.

Several Canadian hospitals have implemented policies of "required request" or "recorded consideration." Under these schemes, health care institutions or physicians make potential donors and their families aware of the option of organ donation. Manitoba, Nova Scotia and Ontario have enacted laws that require hospitals to establish policies and procedures that encourage organ donation.

All provinces have organ registries that allocate donor organs as they become available. These organ registries store information on potential recipients such as blood and tissue type, medical priority,

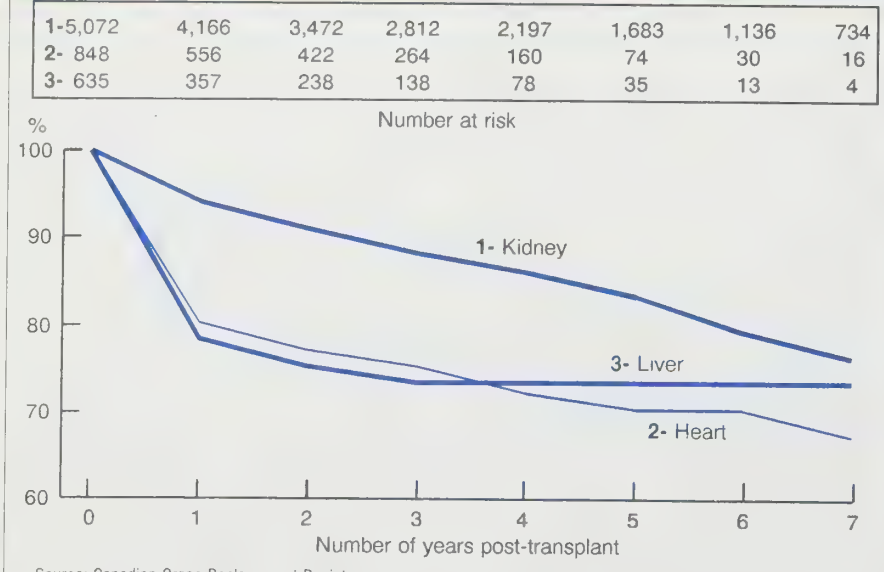
Patients waiting for a transplant, September, 1992

	Atlantic provinces	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Canada
Kidney	206	431	944	50	51	92	236	**2,010**
Heart	5	29	38	0	0	14	13	**99**
Liver	0	17	61	0	0	0	7	**85**
Lung	0	28	24	0	0	4	4	**60**
Heart/lung	0	1	16	0	0	1	1	**19**
Kidney/pancreas	0	11	0	0	0	0	4	**15**
Pancreas	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	**1**
Total	**211**	**518**	**1,083**	**50**	**51**	**111**	**265**	**2,289**

Source: Canadian Organ Replacement Register

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Patient survival, kidney, heart and liver transplantation, to December, 1990



Source: Canadian Organ Replacement Register

length of time on the waiting list, and donor/recipient size comparisons. If a suitable match is not found within a given province, the organ is made available to high priority out-of-province patients. On rare occasions, organs are made available outside of Canada if suitable domestic recipients cannot be found. It is even less common for a Canadian patient to receive an organ from a foreign donor, because demand for organs in other countries is also high.

Ethical and legal considerations

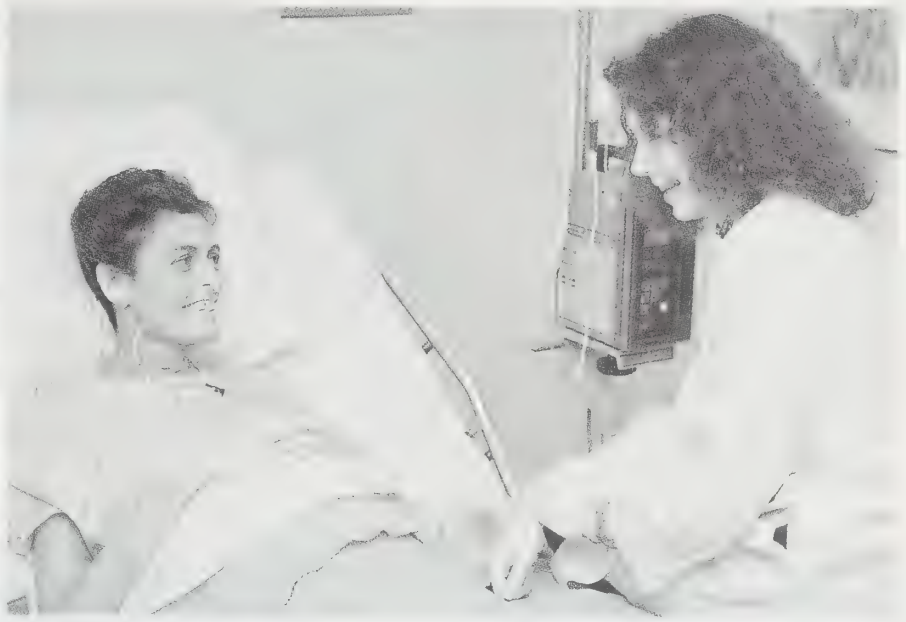
Organ transplantation raises ethical issues relating to the sanctity of the human body and of human life, and the extent to which medical technology should be used to prevent death. Although some religions object to transplantation, all major religions accept the philosophy of organ donation, reasoning that saving lives overrides considerations of the treatment of the body after death.

Organ retrieval from anencephalic infants — babies whose brains are only capable of regulating non-voluntary functions such as breathing and heartbeat and who are not expected to live beyond a few days — raises both ethical and legal concerns. These infants are potentially ideal organ donors, but the legal definition of "brain dead" does not apply to them. Laws in most countries, including Canada, moreover, prevent the acceleration of death in any circumstance. In 1989, an international ethics conference placed a moratorium on anencephalic organ retrieval.

Opponents of using dying infants as a source of organs argue that, eventually, the permissible circumstances for organ retrieval would be dangerously broadened. Conceivably, organs could be retrieved from comatose patients, from people with mental disabilities or even from life created specifically for the purpose of organ harvesting.

The use of animal organs for transplantation raises further issues. Doctors in the United States have successfully transplanted baboon hearts and pig livers to keep patients awaiting a human organ alive. As drugs that fight organ rejection are improved, using animal organs for transplantation will become more feasible. Critics, however, question the morality of transplanting animal organs into human patients.

Some observers have suggested paying donors or their families to increase the supply of organs. Such an approach, however, could lead to organ harvesting for profit and potential exploitation. In Canada, buying or selling human organs is illegal.



Other incentive-based schemes have also been proposed. One example is the creation of a voluntary organ donation program where those who enrol would be given priority for receiving organs.

Cost of transplantation

Little information exists on the actual cost of various surgical procedures. Organ transplantation, however, is fully covered under all provincial and territorial hospital insurance plans. Inter-provincial billing agreements provide an indication of the costs of transplant operations. (Procedures performed outside of Canada are not covered.) The amounts that hospital insurance plans can be billed for transplants (including hospital stay) range from $42,000 for a kidney transplant to $152,000 for lung or heart and lung transplants. In addition, transplant recipients must take anti-rejection medication for the rest of their lives. Depending on the dosage, these drugs can cost several thousand dollars every year. Of course, unsuccessful transplant operations, or those that lead to further complications, can result in much higher costs, both medical and human.

Fee schedule for transplant operations[1]

Type of transplant	$
Kidney	42,405
Liver	105,730
Heart	111,350
Lung (single or double not specified)	152,320
Heart and lung	152,320
Home dialysis/year	27,500
Hospital dialysis/year	40,250

[1] Includes cost of post-operative hospital stay.
Source: Advisory Committee on Institutional and Medical Services, April 1, 1992.

Expensive technologies and scarce resources

The subject of resource allocation and rationing in health care is of growing concern because of the aging population, the proliferation of medical technology, and the strains these place on health care resources. It is part of a larger debate over how society should value expensive curative medical care relative to preventative approaches to health care. The debate ultimately involves considerations over the value and the quality of life.

Financial constraints will eventually necessitate that a balance be achieved between the kinds of health services to be delivered. In striking this balance, cost-benefit evaluations of services will have to include not only relatively novel technologies such as organ transplantation, but all expensive approaches to health care.

Jeffrey Frank *is an Assistant Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

TRENDS IN LOW BIRTH WEIGHT

by Wayne J. Millar, Jill Strachan and Surinder Wadhera

Adapted from "Trends in Low Birth Weight in Canada 1971 to 1989," **Health Reports**, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-003, Vol. 3-4, pp. 311-325, 1991*



The weight of children at birth is related to the health of their mother and is a key predictor of their survival chances. Environmental, social and economic factors are also related to low birth weight. Low birth weights contribute to mental and physical disabilities and many early infant deaths.

Preventative efforts to lower infant mortality have focused on reducing the prevalence of low birth weight through pre-natal programs, the monitoring of high-risk mothers, and specialized hospital and medical care of low birth weight infants. Despite the introduction of new medical technologies and programs, the percentage of infants born with low birth weight has declined very little during the past decade.

Mothers under age 20 and over age 34 are more likely than others to have a baby born with a low weight. Mothers having their first baby are also more likely than others to have a child born with a low birth weight.

5% of infants have low birth weight

Low birth weight infants weigh less than 2,500 grams at birth. These children are either born pre-term (fewer than 37 weeks gestation) or are born full-term, but are small for their gestational age. Of all single live births[1] in 1989, 4.7% of the infants weighed less than 2,500 grams at birth, down slightly from 5.0% in 1980. During the previous decade, however, the proportion of infants of low birth weight declined. In 1979, 5.1% of all infants were born with a low birth weight, down from 5.5% in 1976 and 6.6% in 1971.

This overall decrease resulted from a drop in the proportion of infants with medium low birth weight (weighing 1,500 to 2,499 grams), to 4.0% in 1989 from 4.3% in 1980 and 5.8% in 1971. In contrast, the proportion of infants with very low birth weight (less than 1,500 grams) remained at about 0.7% during the 18 year period. This is perhaps because improvements in medical care and medical technologies continued to increase the opportunity for younger premature infants to be born alive.

20% of children in many developing countries have low birth weight

Birth weight is an indicator of the health status of a country's population. According to the United Nations[2], the percentage of infants born with low birth weight during the 1980s (including multiple births) equalled or exceeded 20% in Mozambique, Afghanistan, Malawi, Bangladesh, Nigeria, Pakistan, Laos, Togo, India, Honduras, Papua New Guinea, and Sri Lanka. Many other developing nations did not have statistics available.

In contrast, less than 10% of infants born in western countries had a low birth weight. Countries where 6% of infants were born with a low birth weight included Canada, Australia, Germany, Denmark, Austria and Greece. Many western nations had a lower percentage of infants born with a low birth weight than Canada. These included Sweden, Finland, Norway and Ireland with 4% and Japan, Hong Kong, Switzerland, France, New Zealand, Belgium and Portugal with 5%. Countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Italy, Singapore and Israel had 7% of infants born with a low birth weight.

Firstborn and female infants more likely to have low birth weight

A mother's firstborn tends to weigh less at birth than subsequent children. From 1971 to 1989, the proportion of live births that were the mother's first birth grew from 41% to 44%, thus increasing the probability of an increase in the number of low birth weight infants. However, during this period, the proportion of first births to women under age 20, who have a high risk of having an infant born with a low birth weight, fell.

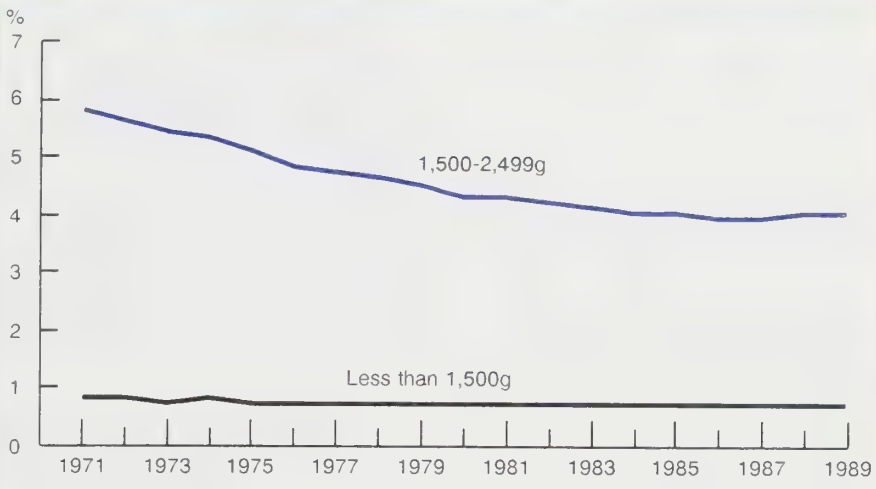
Low birth weight is also more common among female infants than male infants. In 1989, 4.9% of all females were born with a low weight compared with 4.3% of males. In 1971, 7.4% of females were born with a low weight compared with 5.9% of males.

More low birth weight infants are pre-term

The prevalence of pre-term low birth weight infants declined to 2.7% of all single live births in 1989 from 3.1% in 1971. However, during this period the proportion of all low birth weight infants who were pre-term increased, rising to 60% in

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Low birth weight newborns as a percentage of all single live births[1], 1971-1989



[1] Excludes Newfoundland
Source: Statistics Canada, Health Reports 1991, volume 3, number 4.

Definitions

Gestational age	— Completed weeks (days) of pregnancy.
Pre-term or premature	— Infant born following less than 37 weeks (259 completed days) of pregnancy.
Small for gestational	— Birth weight less than the 10th age percentile of all live births of a given sex adjusted for sex, gestational age, and single or multiple birth status. Intrauterine growth retardation.
Low birth weight	— Less than 2,500 grams[1].
Medium low birth weight	— 1,500 to 2,499 grams[1].
Very low birth weight	— Less than 1,500 grams[1].

[1] World Health Organization definition.

1989 from 47% in 1971. A high proportion of pre-term infants are of low birth weight and often require more hospital care during their first weeks of life and more medical care throughout their lives than other children.

Low birth weight infants need more hospital care

Normal birth weight infants average 3.5 days in hospital during their first year of life, compared with 24 days for infants weighing 1,501 to 2,000 grams, 57 days for those weighing 1,500 grams or less, and 89 days for those weighing less than 1,000 grams[3].

In addition, premature and immature infants have more birth complications and are more likely than other infants to have deficits in their physical and mental development. In particular, the incidence of cerebral palsy, and visual and auditory defects is higher among low birth weight infants. For many children, the effects of being born with a low birth weight are irreversible.

Most mothers aged 20-29

Changes in the age distribution of mothers of low birth weight infants have followed overall fertility trends. Most mothers of low birth weight infants are aged 20-29, however the proportion has fallen since the early 1970s. In 1989, 59% of all low birth weight infants were born to women aged 20-29, compared with 63% in 1971. Similarly, the proportion of all low birth weight infants born to teenage women, under age 20, decreased to 8% in 1989 from 15% in 1971. In contrast, a greater proportion of low birth weight infants were born to mothers aged 30-39 in 1989 than in 1971. Whereas 31% of all low birth weight births were to women aged 30-39 in 1989, just 19% were to women this age in 1971. A small minority of low birth weight births were to women aged 40-49 in both 1989 (1%) and 1971 (2%).

The large increase in the proportion of low birth weight births to women aged 30-39 and the decrease in the proportion among teenagers is consistent with changes in overall fertility. In 1989, 32% of all births were to women aged 30-39 and 6% were to women under age 20. In contrast, in 1971, 20% of all births were to women aged 30-39 while 12% were to women under age 20.

Higher risk among mothers over 40 and teenagers

In 1971 and 1989, women under age 20 and over age 40 had the highest relative risk of having a low birth weight infant when compared to women aged 20-29. Births to women in these two age groups, however, accounted for just 7% of all births and 10% of all low birth weight births in 1989.

In 1989, women under age 20 were 1.18 times more likely to give birth to a low birth weight infant than women aged 20-29. The relative risk of a low birth weight child among women aged 40-49 was 1.41 times greater. Women aged 30-39 had almost the same risk (0.99) of having a low birth weight infant as women aged 20-29.

Income and infant health[1]

Children from low-income families are less healthy than children of other Canadians. Compared with infants from higher-income neighbourhoods[2], infants from lower-income neighbourhoods were 30-50% more likely to be of low birth weight, premature, or with growth retardation. They were also two-thirds more likely than other children to die before their first birthday.

In 1986, the higher the percentage of children in families with low incomes in a neighbourhood, the higher the rates of infant mortality, low birth weight, very low birth weight, prematurity, and infants born small for their gestational age. The infant mortality rate was 1.7 times higher in neighbourhoods with the lowest incomes (income quintile 5) than in those with the highest incomes (income quintile 1)[3]. The percentage of low birth weight and very low birth weight births was 1.4 times higher in the lowest income neighbourhoods than in the highest. The percentage of premature births varied with the percentage of low income, and was 1.3 times higher in the lowest income neighbourhoods than in the highest. The percentage of infants born small for their gestational age was 1.5 times higher in the lowest income neighbourhoods.

If the rates of infant mortality, low birth weight, prematurity, and growth retardation had been as low in all neighbourhoods in 1986 as they were in the highest income neighbourhoods, then 22% of infant deaths would not have occurred. There would also have been 14% fewer infants born with a low birth weight, 10% fewer premature infants, and 19% fewer infants born with growth retardation.

Much of Canadian society has already obtained low rates of infant and child mortality, low birth weight, prematurity, and disability. Tracking Canada's future progress in terms of reducing socioeconomic inequities in child health requires, however, an ongoing monitoring of the extent to which such low rates are attained by all, regardless of income.

Low income and unfavourable birth outcomes, by income quintile, urban Canada, 1986

Neighbourhood income quintiles	Children with low family incomes	Low birth weight (<2,500g)	Very low birth weight (<1,500g)	Prematurity (<37 weeks)	Small for gestational age	Infant mortality (<1 year)
			%			
1	6.3	4.9	0.82	5.7	8.0	6.0
2	11.3	4.9	0.79	5.6	8.6	6.1
3	16.9	5.6	0.82	6.1	9.7	7.1
4	25.4	6.1	0.91	6.6	10.6	8.2
5	43.6	6.9	1.16	7.4	12.1	9.9

[1] Excerpted from Wilkins, R., Sherman, G.J., and Best, P.A.F. "Birth Outcomes and Infant Mortality by Income in Urban Canada, 1986", Health Reports (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-003, Vol. 3-1, pp. 7-31, 1991).
[2] 1986 Census Tracts.
[3] Census tracts (neighbourhoods) in each Census Metropolitan Area were assigned to one of five quintile groups, from lowest to highest percentage of children living in families with low incomes.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-003, Vol. 3-1, 1991.

[1] Unless otherwise indicated, live births excludes multiple births, such as twins, throughout the article.

[2] UNICEF. "The State of the World's Children 1991". (U.K.: Oxford University Press). Statistics include multiple births.

[3] McCormick, M.C. "The Contribution of Low Birth Weight to Infant Mortality and Childhood Morbidity." *New England Journal of Medicine*, 1985;31(2): 82-90



In 1971, women under age 20 and over age 40 were about 1.30 times more likely to have a low birth weight infant than women aged 20-29. That year, women aged 30-39 did not have a substantially higher risk than women aged 20-29. Their relative risk was 1.04 times greater.

Fertility control

The drop in the proportion of low birth weight infants from 1971 to 1980 may be related to women's increased control over their fertility. This control has likely led to an increase in planned children. Mothers of planned children may be more motivated and better able to make behavioural changes that would increase the probability of a higher birth weight.

Access to abortion also may have influenced the decline in low birth weight births. In 1988, 22% of therapeutic abortions involved women who were under age 20 and about 2% involved women aged 40 and over. Both groups have a higher risk of having premature delivery and low birth weight infants. The abortion of fetuses with genetic abnormalities, who would likely have a low birth weight, may have also contributed to a reduction in low birth weight births.

Smoking

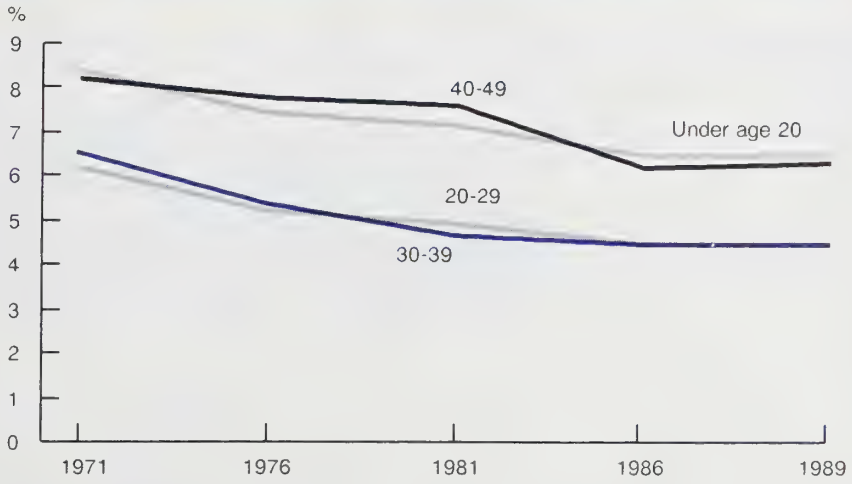
The decrease in the proportion of low birth weight births from 1971 to the 1980s may have occurred, at least in part, because a smaller proportion of women were smokers during the 1980s than during the 1970s. Smoking is a known contributor to low birth weight and mothers who smoke are two times more likely than other mothers to have an infant born weighing less than 2,500 grams.

There are no national data on the smoking behaviour of pregnant women. However, according to the Labour Force Survey Smoking Supplements, the age standardized smoking rate for Canadian women of reproductive age (15-44) declined to 29% in 1986 from 37% in 1972.

Wayne J. Millar, **Jill Strackan** *and* **Surinder Wadhera** *are analysts with the Canadian Centre for Health Information, Statistics Canada.*

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Low birth weight newborns as a percentage of all single live births[1], by age of mother, 1971-1989



[1] Excludes Newfoundland.
Source: Statistics Canada, Health Reports 1991, volume 3, number 4.

EMOTIONAL SUPPORT AND FAMILY CONTACTS OF OLDER CANADIANS

by Susan McDaniel

Elderly people can no longer expect to spend their senior years living with their families. This is particularly true for older women, who as widows are more and more likely to be living alone. With more seniors living on their own, emotional support from family may not be as easy to come by as in the past. It takes some effort by the individual, as well as by family and friends, to maintain the social contact they want.

Family ties contribute to an individual's well-being. Whom one calls on for help is an indication of how important family members and others are to a person's emotional well-being, and also reveals the social networks that exist. How often people interact with their family is an important factor in maintaining these ties.



Emotional support

According to the General Social Survey, spouses and children were the main sources of emotional support for most of the three million Canadians aged 65 and over in 1990. When asked who they would turn to first when they were a bit down or depressed, older women tended to report a larger variety of sources of support than did men. It is not surprising, therefore, that while a relatively large proportion of married (including common-law) seniors reported that they would turn to their spouse for support, it was more common for men this age (45%) to do so than it was among women (37%). Married women were more likely to seek support from one of their children (25%) or from a friend (10%) than were men (15% and 4%, respectively). This relative isolation of married men when it comes to emotional support is further illustrated by their greater tendency not to seek support from anyone. More than twice the proportion of men (12%) as women (5%) reported they would not seek support from anyone.

Women aged 65 and over not living with a spouse were most likely to say they would turn to a daughter for emotional support (28%), while only 16% of the men without spouses would do so. Both women and men were less likely to turn to a son than to a daughter (12% and 7%, respectively). The lesser tendency for men to turn to a child, whether a son or a daughter, is somewhat underestimated by these percentages, since only 5% of men said they had never had children, compared

with 12% of the women. Men, on the other hand, would most likely turn to a friend (24%), whereas this was the case for only 16% of women.

When upset with a spouse or partner, many older Canadians (26%) said they would turn to one of their children, their daughters in particular, for support. More women (31%) than men (21%) would turn to a child for support in these circumstances. A slightly higher proportion of women (8%) said they would seek support from a friend than did men (5%). About 15% of both men and women would seek help from a professional when upset with their spouse or partner. However, many older Canadians (27%) reported that they didn't know to whom they would turn for support and 21% said they would not seek support from anyone. A larger proportion of men (24%) than women (16%) reported they would not talk to anyone when upset.

Distance and contacts with children

The personal contact elderly parents had with their grown children who had left home was certainly influenced by how far away they lived, and also likely depended on the quality of the relationship. As the distance from the child increased, the frequency of contact fell. No matter how far parents lived from their child, however, few said they had not seen the child at all in the previous 12 months.

In 1990, older Canadians tended to live close to the child with whom they had the most contact, with about one-half living within 10 kilometres. Among parents living this close to the child with whom they had the most contact, 26% saw their child on a daily basis and 60% saw them at least once a week. Another 22% of the parents lived within 11 to 50 kilometres. More than one-half (53%) of the elderly visited weekly with the child in question. Another 36% had monthly visits. When parents lived over 50 kilometres away, visits were mainly monthly or at longer intervals.

In 1990, just 7% of elderly parents lived over 1,000 kilometres away from the child with whom they had the most contact. Visits over this distance require time, money and motivation. It is therefore not surprising that over two-thirds (69%) reported seeing their child less than once a month, and 23% reported no personal contact at all in the previous 12 months.

Older women, regardless of distance, tended to see their child more often than did men. Men were more likely than women to have had no personal contact at all over the year preceding the survey.

Most men (74%) and women (68%) aged 65 and over thought that the amount of personal contact they had with their adult children was just right. Men were slightly happier than women with the frequency of contact. About one-quarter of married men and one-third of married women said they saw their child less often than they would like. More widowed men (33%) than widowed women (27%) were unhappy about the amount of contact they had. Very few seniors, regardless of gender or marital status, expressed concern about seeing their child more often than they would like.

Contact with sisters and brothers

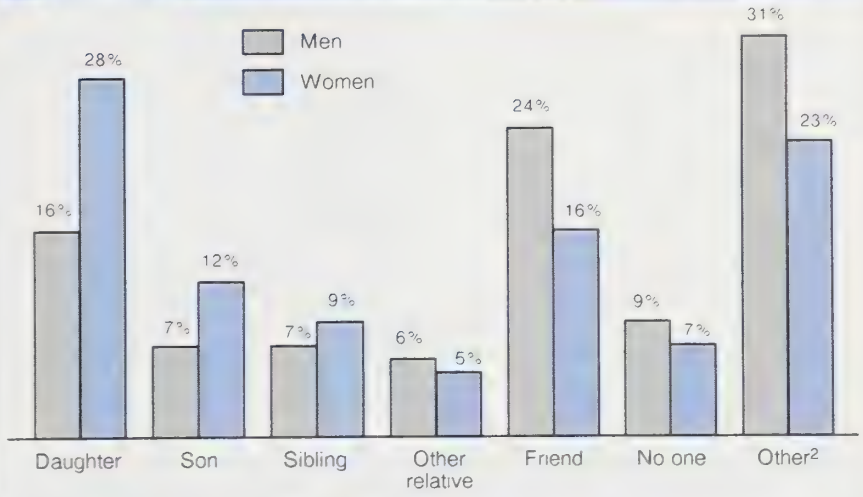
Most older Canadians with brothers and sisters still alive had relatively little personal

Reference child

The "child" referred to in the discussion of distance and contacts with children, is the "reference child" defined by the 1990 General Social Survey. This is the child with whom the respondent reported having the most contact. Only adult children who did not live with the respondent were eligible to be selected as the reference child. In addition, only people who had children (i.e., natural, step, adopted) still alive at the time of the survey were asked to select a reference child and answer questions about this child and their relationship with the child.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Sources of emotional support for elderly men and women without spouses[1], 1990



1 Includes persons without sons, daughters, siblings, etc.
2 Includes neighbours, co-workers, clergy, doctors, professional counsellors, others, and don't know. None of these specific sources exceeded 5%.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1990.

Personal contacts of seniors with their reference child[1], by distance away, 1990

Distance	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Less than monthly	Not at all[2]	Total
0-10 Km	23	64	10	3	0	**100**
11-50 Km	5	52	36	5	1	**100**
51-100 Km	2	21	55	21	1	**100**
101-200 Km	0	8	49	40	2	**100**
201-400 Km	0	4	25	71	–	**100**
401-1000 Km	0	–	6	89	2	**100**
More than 1000 Km	0	–	2	64	29	**100**

1 Child with whom they had the most contact.
2 No personal contact in the previous 12 months
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1990.

contact with their siblings in 1990. That year, 40% saw them less than once a month and another 18% had not seen their siblings at all. On the other hand, 18% reported monthly contact, 17% reported weekly contact, and 5% saw one of their siblings every day.

Older men and women maintained the same frequency of contact with their sisters and brothers overall. More women (43%) than men (36%) saw them less than once a month. However, more men (22%) than women (15%) reported they had not seen them at all during the previous 12 months.

Older women who had never married reported the most personal contact with their sisters and brothers. As many as 15% saw them daily and another 30% saw their siblings at least once a week. Never-married men were the next most frequent visitors of their siblings: 12% saw their siblings daily and 23% on a weekly basis.

Married men aged 65 and over maintained about the same amount of contact with their siblings as did married women aged 65 and over, with one in five seeing them daily or weekly. Divorced men were more likely to have daily contact than were divorced women. Widowed men and women saw their siblings less frequently than did others.

Women had contact with sisters and brothers by telephone or letter more often than did men. Daily and weekly contact with brothers or sisters by phone or mail was maintained by 39% of women, compared with 25% of men.

Distance and contact with parents

In 1990, approximately one-half of middle-aged Canadians (aged 45-64) reported that at least one of their parents was still alive. This is no surprise in light of the dramatic increase in the odds of living well into old age. Personal contacts with elderly parents reported from the middle-aged child's point of view provides an additional perspective on family ties.

Most middle-aged Canadians (57%) whose mothers were still alive saw their mothers at least once a month. Personal contact declined, however, as distance from mothers increased. About 80% who lived within 10 kilometres of their mothers saw them weekly or daily. The proportion who saw their mothers at least weekly dropped to about one-half (52%) for those living from 11 to 50 kilometres away.

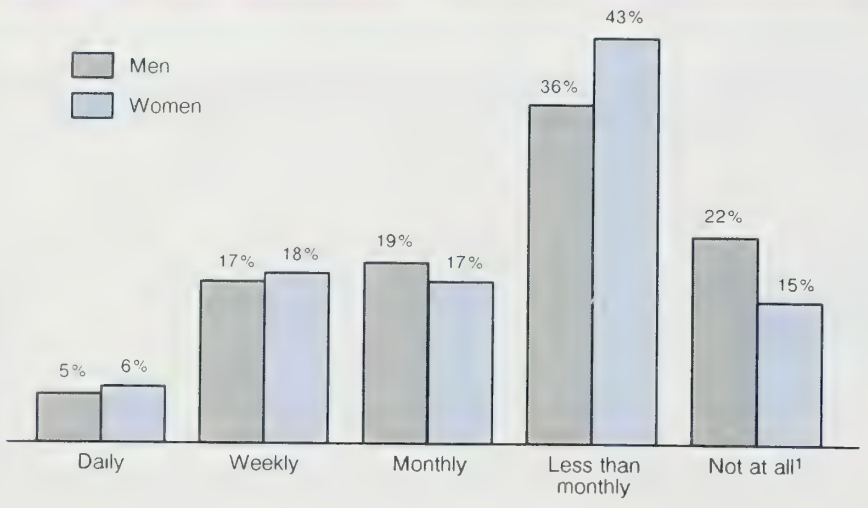
Daughters tended to see their mothers more often than did sons. Middle-aged women (86%) had a greater tendency than men (73%) to visit with their mothers daily or weekly if they lived within 10 kilometres. Men, although frequent weekly visitors of mothers, tended more toward monthly visits. For example, among men who lived 11-50 kilometres from their mothers, 43% saw their mothers weekly and another 43% saw them monthly. Among women living the same distance away, 56% saw their mothers weekly and 35% saw them monthly. With increased distance from mothers, women still saw them more often than men did. For men living 51-100 kilometres away, 14% saw their mother weekly and 63% monthly. However, 39% of the women living this distance away had weekly visits, while 49% had monthly visits.

For fathers, the pattern was different. Fewer respondents had fathers who were still alive because of men's lower life expectancies. Also, men tend to be older than their wives. It was principally the middle-aged children living within 10 kilometres of their fathers who maintained daily or weekly contact (76%). Among children living 11-50 kilometres away from their fathers, 3% saw them daily. Another 19% said they saw them at least once a week and another 47% said at least monthly. For those living 51-100 kilometres away, none saw their fathers daily. However, 3% had weekly contact, and another 69% had monthly contact.

The most frequent of these parent-child contacts were between daughters and mothers (41% of daughters saw their mothers daily or weekly). Ten percent of daughters had not seen their mother in the past year, and the same percentage had not seen their fathers. Personal contact between sons and their fathers occurred the least frequently. Only 20% of sons saw their fathers daily or weekly, 40% saw them less often than monthly, and another 18% did not see them at all. This is consistent with men's greater emotional distance from family members alluded to by the information on elderly men's sources of emotional support, as well as by how often sons and husbands are the first choice for that support. However, one

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Personal contacts with siblings, by men and women aged 65 and over, 1990



[1] No personal contact in the previous 12 months.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1990.

Sisters and brothers

Older Canadians reported large numbers of sisters and brothers relative to younger Canadians. This is not surprising in view of the large family sizes of the older generation. In 1990, more than one-half (54%) of people aged 65 or over reported coming from families where they had five or more siblings. Only 4% of men, and 5% of women reported having no siblings, while 8% of men and 10% of women had only one.

More seniors reported having sisters who were still living than brothers. This is expected given that women generally live longer than men. Among those aged 80 or over, about 60% of both men and women reported having a living sister. In contrast, 33% of men and 38% of women in this age group reported having a living brother.

should also consider differences between middle-aged men and women when it comes to how flexible their time is, with more sons than daughters in the labour force. How old or dependent the parent is could also be a factor, since elderly fathers are on average younger and less apt to be alone than elderly mothers.

Contacts with grandparents

Grandchildren are an important part of the elderly's family environment. In 1990, over one-third of Canadians with a grandparent still living saw at least one of their grandparents once a month or more: 3% had daily contact, another 14% had weekly, and another 22% saw their grandparents at least once a month. It was common, however, to see a grandparent less frequently than once a month (41%). Another 20% had not seen their grandparents in over 12 months.

Young adults aged 15-24 saw their grandparents more often than did people aged 25-44. People who had never married reported more frequent contact with their grandparents than others. This may in part be a reflection of age.

The contacts by telephone or by letter that persons aged 15 and over had with their grandparents were quite similar in frequency to personal contacts. As many as 3% had daily contact by letter or phone. Another 13% talked or wrote to their grandparents weekly. Another 22% had this type of contact on a monthly basis, while 33% were in contact by phone or mail less than once a month. However, 29% of Canadians aged 15 or over had no contact with one of their grandparents by letter or phone in the year before the survey.

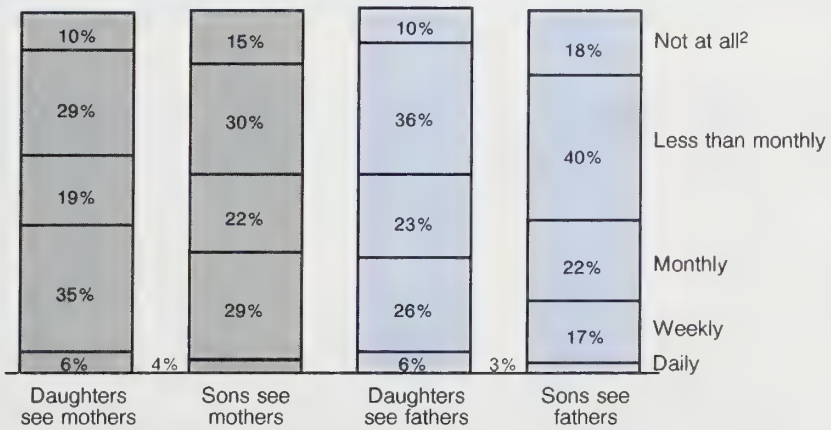
It is difficult to compare the level of personal contact between those aged 15 years and over and their grand-parents with the level of contact middle-aged children have with their parents. The frequency of personal contact between middle-aged sons and their fathers ranks low compared to the other parent-child relationships, but it closely resembles the frequency of contact between grandchildren and grandparents. Given the greater distance in terms of kinship, grandchildren appear to be doing their part.

Canadians are living longer. With access to pensions and increased mobility, more older Canadians are living alone or living with their spouses and no children. Women continue, on average, to outlive their spouses. With the growth in the elderly population, this means an increasing number of older women are living alone. The extended family household is becoming a thing of the past. Consequently, contacts with family members can no longer be taken for granted as the result of living together. For older Canadians to hold onto the feeling of security that family represents, someone must make the effort to maintain contact.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Personal contacts with elderly parents, by middle-aged[1] sons and daughters, 1990



[1] Aged 45-64.
[2] No personal contact in the previous 12 months.
Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1990.

- The number of seniors surveyed in the 1990 GSS was doubled with the support of the *Seniors Secretariat*, Health and Welfare Canada.

Susan McDaniel *is a Professor at the University of Alberta.*

ANNUAL LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, 1946-1992

	Population aged 15 and over (000s)	Labour force (000s)			Participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Employment/ population ratio (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966[1]	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	61.1	7.1	56.7
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	61.6	8.1	56.6
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	62.7	8.3	57.5
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	63.4	7.4	58.7
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	64.1	7.5	59.3
1981	18,368	11,899	11,001	898	64.8	7.5	59.9
1982	18,608	11,926	10,618	1,308	64.1	11.0	57.1
1983	18,805	12,109	10,675	1,434	64.4	11.8	56.8
1984	18,996	12,316	10,932	1,384	64.8	11.2	57.5
1985	19,190	12,532	11,221	1,311	65.3	10.5	58.5
1986	19,397	12,746	11,531	1,215	65.7	9.5	59.4
1987	19,642	13,011	11,861	1,150	66.2	8.8	60.4
1988	19,890	13,275	12,245	1,031	66.7	7.8	61.6
1989	20,141	13,503	12,486	1,018	67.0	7.5	62.0
1990	20,430	13,681	12,572	1,109	67.0	8.1	61.5
1991	20,746	13,757	12,340	1,417	66.3	10.3	59.5
1992	21,058	13,797	12,240	1,556	65.5	11.3	58.1

[1] Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,240.3	26,610.4	27,000.4[pr]	27,408.9[pp]
Annual growth (%)	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5[pr]	1.5[pp]
Immigration[1]	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,527	219,480[r]	232,758[p]
Emigration[1]	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	39,650	39,233[pr]	38,328[pp]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	15.3	15.1[r]	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.1	7.2[r]	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	2.9	2.8	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	990	915	872	789	776	841	1,046	1,132
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572	12,340	12,240
- goods sector (000s)	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626	3,423	3,307
- services sector (000s)	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946	8,917	8,933
Total unemployment (000s)	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109	1,417	1,556
Unemployment rate (%)	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.3	11.3
Part-time employment (%)	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4	16.4	16.8
Women's participation rate (%)	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4	58.2	57.6
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	34.1	34.7	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	46,069	46,742	*
% of families with low income (1986 Base)	14.3	13.6	13.1	12.2	11.1	12.1	13.1	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	67.6	69.6	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,074.4	5,141.0	*	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.9	832.3	856.3	887.0[p]	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,672	2,947	*
Government expenditures on education - as a % of GDP	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.5	*	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease								
- men	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	37.3	*	*
- women	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	41.2	*	*
% of deaths due to cancer - men	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	27.8	*	*
- women	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	26.8	*	*
Government expenditures on health - as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	*	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	749	808	856	898	948	1,013	1,099	*
- property	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,844	6,395	*
- homicide	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	3.0	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1990 $000,000)	155,990.6	157,737.2	160,670.7	164,293.2	170,125.0	175,640.0	*	*
- as a % of total expenditures	55.8	56.4	56.1	56.2	56.2	56.7	*	*
- as a % of GDP	26.2	26.1	25.5	24.7	25.0	26.3	*	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	*
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) - annual % change	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+5.0	+2.3	−0.5	−1.7	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5
Urban housing starts	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323.	150,620	130,094	140,126

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary data [pp] Preliminary postcensal estimates [m] Figures as of March. [pr] Updated postcensal estimates [r] Updated data.

1 For year ending May 31st.

2 Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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Correction: In the article "Sleep Problems: Whom do They Affect?" in the Winter 1992 issue of CST, page 9, the last line in the second paragraph of the section - *Lone parents and their children* should read as follows: Children from lone-parent families were more likely than those living with both parents to have at least one health problem: 56% compared with 49%.

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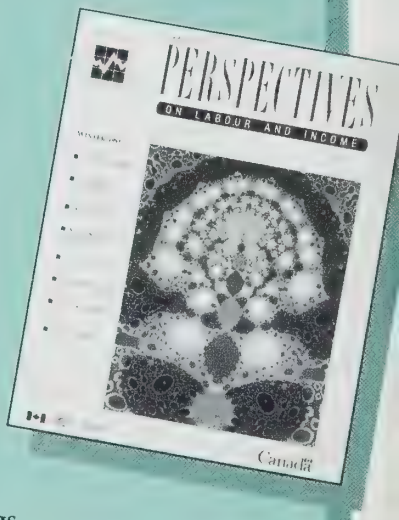
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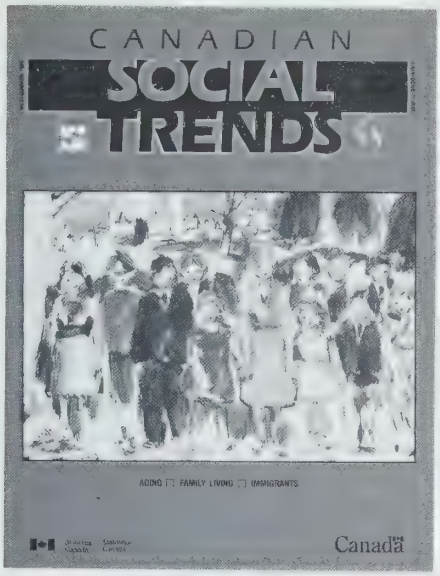
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Cover: Goodbye to a teacher (1953) watercolour over graphite on wove paper 38.1 x 55.9 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the Artist:

David B. Milne (1882 – 1953) was born near Paisley, Bruce County in Ontario. He started drawing before attending kindergarten, graduated at Paisley's high school and became a country teacher. After several years, he went to New York where he studied painting under George Bridgman and Frank V. Dumond. His work was noticed by James Clarke, who became his patron and closest friend. In 1913, five of his paintings were chosen for the exhibition in the Sixty-ninth Regiment Armory, New York City. He returned to Toronto in 1918 where he enlisted in the Canadian Army. He became a war artist and travelled in England, France and Belgium where he produced seventy paintings. Milne's style rapidly crystallized into a highly individual idiom which remained almost unchanged long after the time he was a war artist. After returning home in 1919, he lived in New York State and several places in Ontario, among them Lake Temagami, Muskoka and West Haliburton.



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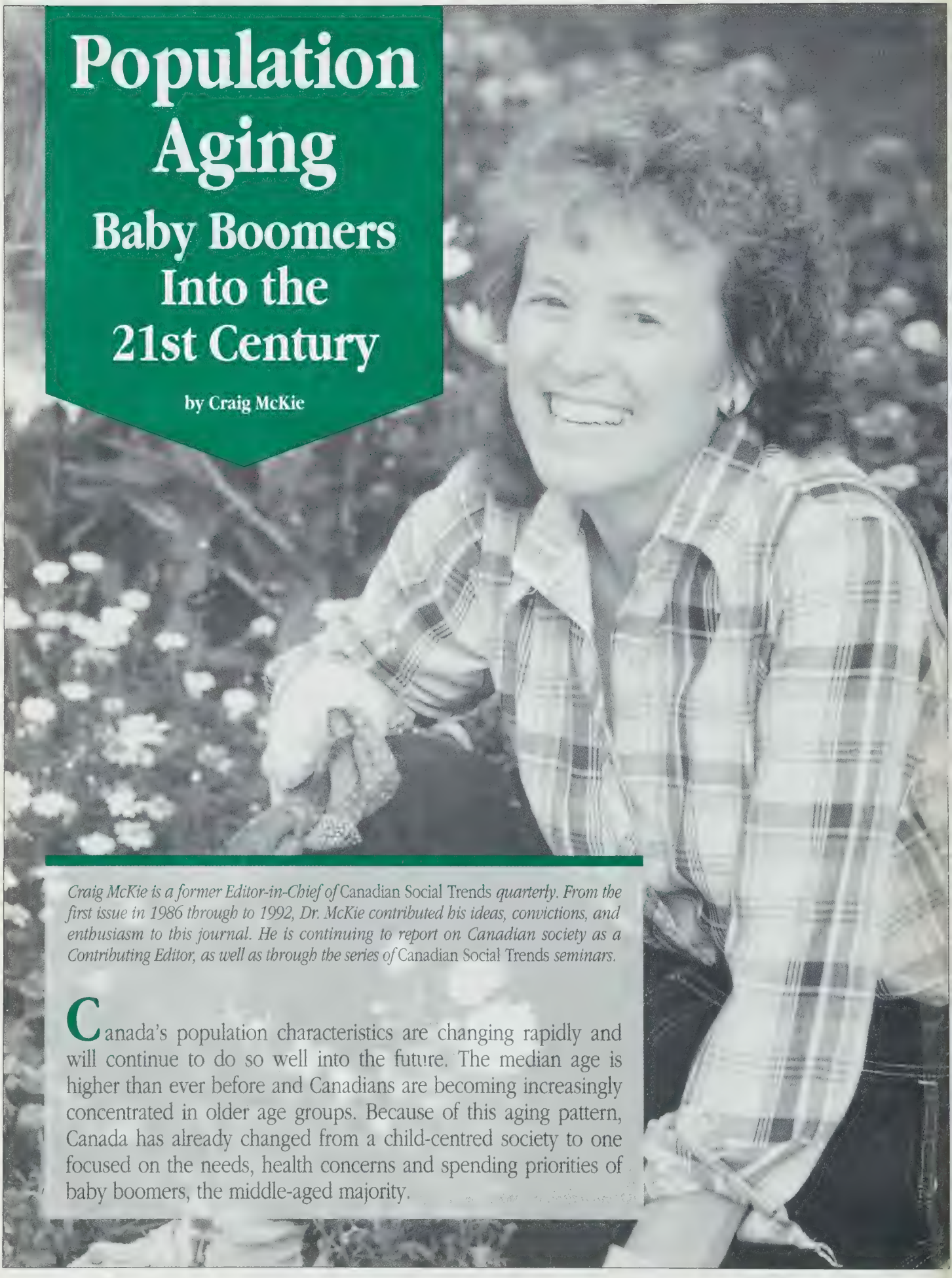
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Population Aging

Baby Boomers Into the 21st Century

by Craig McKie



Craig McKie is a former Editor-in-Chief of Canadian Social Trends *quarterly. From the first issue in 1986 through to 1992, Dr. McKie contributed his ideas, convictions, and enthusiasm to this journal. He is continuing to report on Canadian society as a Contributing Editor, as well as through the series of* Canadian Social Trends *seminars.*

Canada's population characteristics are changing rapidly and will continue to do so well into the future. The median age is higher than ever before and Canadians are becoming increasingly concentrated in older age groups. Because of this aging pattern, Canada has already changed from a child-centred society to one focused on the needs, health concerns and spending priorities of baby boomers, the middle-aged majority.

Baby boomers will continue to be the largest cohort of the population until about the middle of the next century. As they get older, baby boomers will exert additional pressures on social institutions, whose services are determined, to a large extent, by the age of the public they serve.

Median age rising The median age of the population – the point at which half the population is below that age and half above – is much higher now than at the beginning of the century. In 1992, the median age of Canadians was 33.8 years, compared with 23.9 years in 1921. The only period of decline in median age over this time was between 1952 and 1966, when it dropped from 27.7 years to a postwar low of 25.4 years. Since 1970, however, the median age has climbed sharply and, at current low birthrates and moderate net migration levels, this trend is expected to continue well into the next decade.

In 1992, the median age of women (34.6 years) was 1.7 years higher than that of men (32.9 years). For the first half of the century, however, the median age of women had been lower than that of men. This was due to relatively high mortality rates among young women, who often died during childbirth. In 1921, the median age of women was 23.2 years, compared with 24.7 years for men. In 1953, the median ages of men and women were equal (27.6 years). By 1968, the median age of women had surpassed that of men by one year. Since then, the gap has been growing.

Low fertility rate contributes to rising median Many factors have contributed to the rising median age in Canada. Medical and technological advances have all but eliminated most infectious diseases responsible for high mortality rates among children earlier in the century. In addition, health care has improved, in general, and has become more accessible to the public.

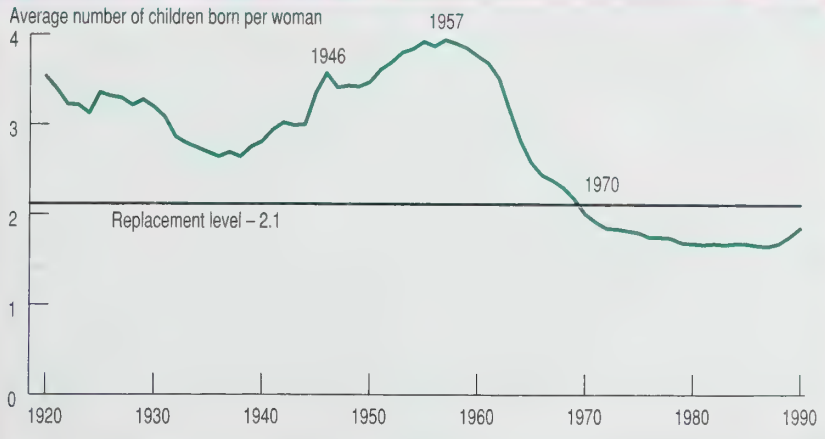
During the past two decades, however, one of the major factors contributing to the increase in the median age has been a low fertility rate among women. In 1970, the year that Canada's median age started climbing sharply again, women's total fertility rate (the average number of children born to a woman in her lifetime) fell below replacement level. (The replacement level is the fertility rate necessary to maintain the current size of the population without immigration.) For the past 22 years, the fertility rate has remained below replacement level (2.1), averaging about 1.7 births per woman of child-bearing age. Low fertility rates are likely to continue, despite a modest echo of the baby boom during the late 1980s and early 1990s as baby boomers had their own children. Between 1988 and 1992, the annual number of births was about 35,000 above the previous 10-year average. It is not likely that this mini-boom will last much longer: a similar mini-boom occurred in the United States, but has already passed its peak.

Provincial median ages converging While all provincial populations are aging, there are differences in the speed of the change and in the current provincial median ages. These differences are, in large part, the legacy of past immigration and migration trends, as well as lifestyle, environmental and health care experiences. During the past 22 years, however, the lowest and highest provincial median ages have converged. By 1992, the gap had fallen to 4.0 years from 7.4 years in 1970.

Newfoundland residents had the lowest median age of any province in 1992 (31.0 years). The median was also relatively low in Alberta, at 31.7 years. Provinces with the highest median ages were British Columbia (35.0 years) and Quebec (34.5 years).

Twenty-two years earlier, Newfoundland also had the lowest median age (20.4 years), and British Columbia, the highest (27.8 years). Between 1970 and 1992, however, the provincial median ages increased by varying amounts. Without exception, increases were relatively high in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec compared to Ontario and the Western provinces. For example, over the 22 years, Newfoundland's median age rose almost 11 years, the largest provincial increase. The median age climbed by 10 years in New

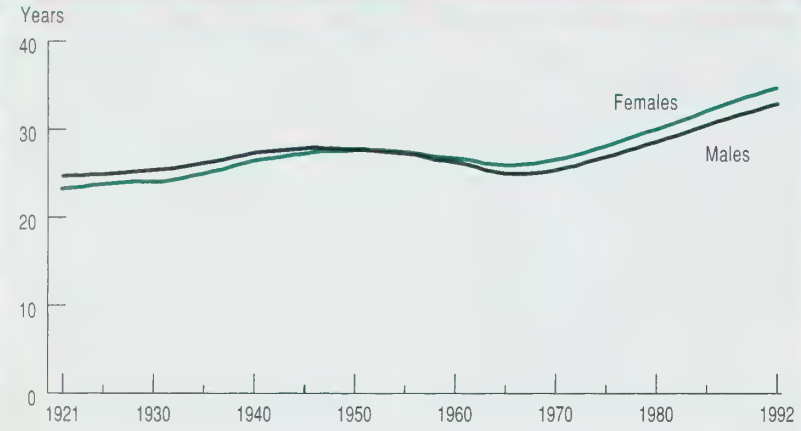
Total fertility rate, 1920 to 1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-204.

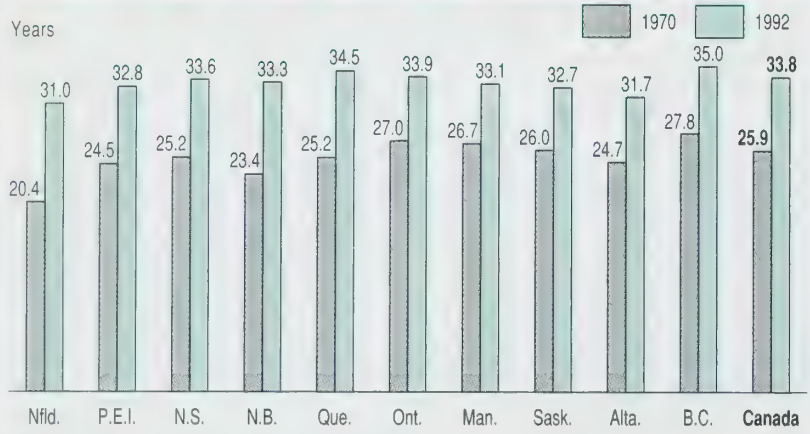


Median age, by sex, 1921 to 1992 CST



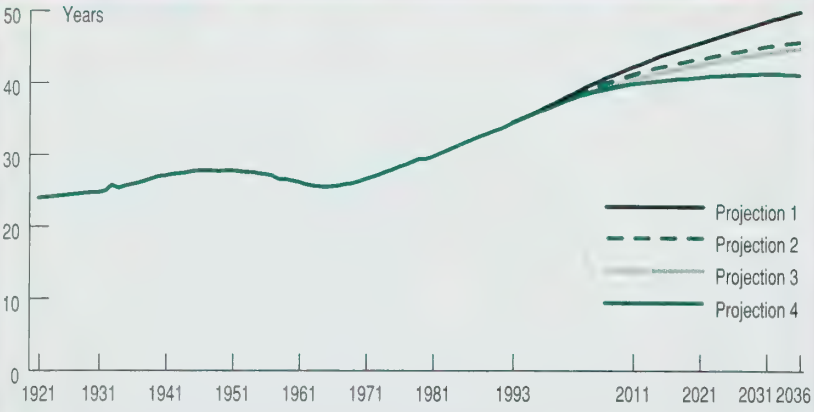
Source: Statistics Canada, CANSIM D892584, D892585.

Median age, by province, 1970 and 1992 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, CANSIM, D892901-D895765.

Median age, 1921 to 1992 with projections to 2036[1] CST



[1]Population projections are based on 1988 population estimates.
Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, unpublished data.

Brunswick and by just over 8 years in Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia. In comparison, the median age in Manitoba increased 6.4 years and the median ages in the other three Western provinces rose about 7 years.

In Ontario, the median age of the population rose 6.9 years from 1970 to 1992, a reflection, in part, of high immigration levels. Quebec's median age rose sharply from 1970 to 1992 (9.3 years), mainly because of a very rapid reduction in the birthrate in that province. Until the mid-1980s, Quebec's median age always had been lower than Ontario's. By 1987 however, the median age of Quebec residents exceeded that of Ontario residents. In just 22 years, Quebec's median age went to 6 months higher than Ontario's from about 2 years lower.

Median age will get even higher All current Statistics Canada's population projections suggest a continuation of the rapid aging process. According to projection 1, the median age of the population will continue to rise sharply and will reach 49.9 years in 2036. Using projection 4, on the other hand, the trend will level off in 2011 and the median age will be only 41.0 in 2036.

According to all projections, women's median age will continue to be higher than men's, a reflection of women's higher life expectancy. In addition, the gap between women's and men's median ages will widen. In projection 1, the median age of women in 2036 is 52.1 years, compared with 47.8 years for men (a gap of 4.3 years, compared with 1.7 years in 1992). In projection 4, the median age for women is 43.3, whereas for men, it is 38.8.

Aging of the baby boomers The process of aging, and the longer life expectancy of women compared to men, has already produced dramatic changes in the age and gender distribution of the Canadian population. The number of working-age people as a proportion of the total population in particular, has almost reached an historic high. Unprecedented growth in the number of seniors, however, is projected to occur in the future.

In 1991, of the total population of about 27 million, 21% were under age 15, 48% were aged 15-44, 20% were aged 45-64 and 12% were seniors aged 65 and over.

This contrasts sharply with the 1961 distribution. That year, 34% of the population were children under age 15, while just 8% were seniors.

Furthermore, according to projection 3, modified to include the most recent data (a 1991 total fertility rate of 1.84, a 1992 immigration level of 250,000 and emigration of 86,886), the age distribution will continue to change dramatically. In 2036, 16% of the population will be under age 15 and 37% will be aged 15-44. In contrast, older people of working age (45-64) will account for 24% of the population by 2036, while those aged 65 and over will make up 22%.

The number of seniors is projected to increase much more rapidly than the number of younger people. Between 1992 and 2036, the number of children under age 15 and the number of young working-age people (15-44) will remain about the same (6.4 million and 14.3 million). The number of older people of working age (45-64), however, will increase to 9.4 million. As a result, the working-age population (aged 15-64) is expected to increase 28% between 1992 and 2036. This increase is small compared with expected growth in the senior population (those aged 65 and over). From 1992 to 2036, the number of seniors will increase 168% to 8.7 million. Among people aged 90 and over, the growth rate will be even faster. Between 1992 and 2036, their numbers are projected to multiply almost five times to 480,000 (362,000 women and 118,000 men).

Implications of the changing distribution As the baby-boom generation ages and

Median age, by sex and province, 1970 and 1992 CST

	Males		Females	
	1970	1992	1970	1992
Newfoundland	20.5	30.5	20.4	31.5
Prince Edward Island	24.2	31.8	24.9	33.8
Nova Scotia	24.7	32.5	25.8	34.5
New Brunswick	22.9	32.3	24.0	34.2
Quebec	24.6	33.4	25.8	35.5
Ontario	26.4	32.9	27.7	34.8
Manitoba	26.1	32.0	27.3	34.2
Saskatchewan	25.8	32.0	26.2	33.5
Alberta	24.7	31.2	24.6	32.1
British Columbia	27.4	34.3	28.3	35.6
Canada	**25.4**	**32.9**	**26.5**	**34.6**

Source: Statistics Canada, CANSIM, D892584 and D892901-D895765.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Population projections Statistics Canada's population projections provide possible scenarios of future age and gender distributions. Four scenarios, projecting varying and plausible fertility, immigration, emigration and death rates to the year 2036, are routinely calculated. The most recent projections are based on 1990 age and gender characteristics of Canadian society.

Statistics Canada's population projections to 2036 are based on four sets of assumptions. They are as follows:

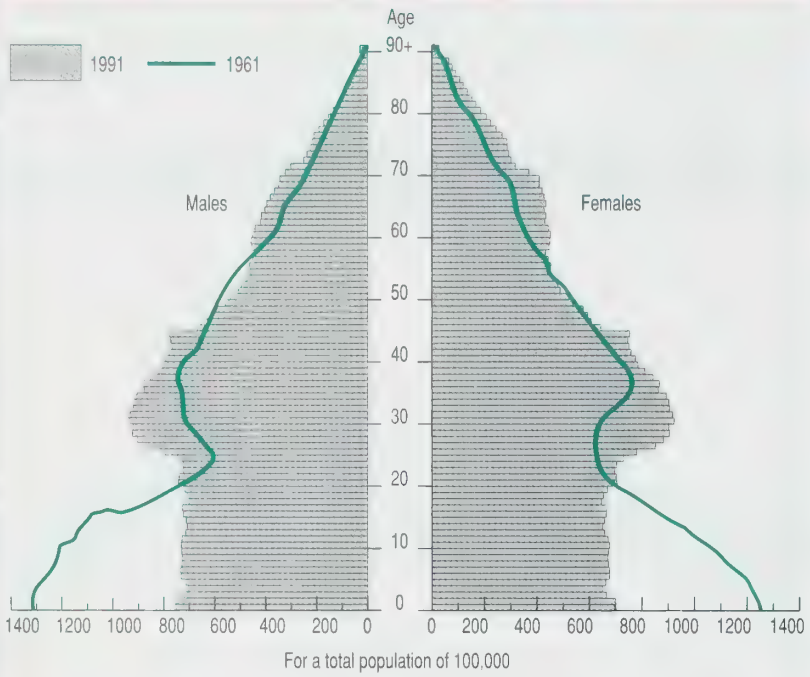
- *Projection 1* – T.F.R.(total fertility rate) of 1.2 by 2011; annual immigration of 140,000 (reached by 1991-92); annual emigration of 74,000 by 2011
- *Projection 2* – T.F.R. of 1.7 by 2011; annual immigration of 140,000 (reached by 1991-92); annual emigration of 76,000 by 2011
- *Projection 3* – T.F.R. of 1.7 by 2011; annual immigration of 200,000 (reached by 1994-95); annual emigration of 80,000 by 2011
- *Projection 4* – T.F.R. of 2.1 by 2011; annual immigration of 200,000 (reached by 1994-95); annual emigration of 81,000 by 2011

When projecting population totals from a 1990 base to the year 2036, wide variation occurs depending on the fertility and immigration rates assumed. Using projection 4, the population rises to over 37 million in 2036 from the present level of about 27 million. On the other hand, using projection 3, the ultimate population size is about 34 million. These projections illustrate how responsive population totals are to immigration levels. Emigration from Canada could have a greater influence on population counts if annual levels rise. During the late 1980s and early 1990s, about 40,000 people emigrated from Canada. In 1978, about 64,000 people emigrated from Canada, and during some years in the 1960s, over 100,000 people emigrated, mainly to the United States.

Population impact of immigrants New immigrants to Canada have had a greater impact on population counts since 1970, when the birth rate fell below replacement level, than in the past. In addition, in recent years, the number of immigrants has risen as the government raised annual targets. For 1991, total immigration to Canada amounted to 224,600 people.

Since the mid-1980s, new immigrants to Canada have been making up a rising share of the total population increase. By 1991, the ratio of net migrants (immigrants minus emigrants) to net natural increase (births minus deaths in the resident population) was 0.87, reflecting the rapidly swelling immigration stream. This contrasts sharply with a ratio of only 0.20 in 1985. In other words, for every 100 babies added to Canada's population from net natural increase, net migration was 87 in 1991, compared with only 20 in 1985.

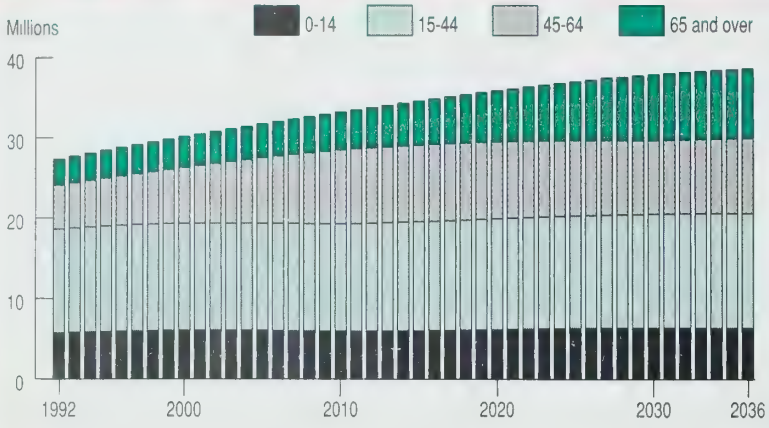
Population distribution, by age and sex, 1961 and 1991 CST



For a total population of 100,000

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Projected population, by age group, 1992 to 2036 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, unpublished data, projection 3 modified to use T.F.R. of 1.84, annual immigration of 250,000, annual emigration of 86,886.

the size of the population of young people remains constant or declines, many aspects of our society and economy will change. The needs and priorities of the dominant age group will likely shift the focus of public policy, alter the composition of the labour force, and change the nature of privately and publicly provided goods and services.

Pension plans will likely be more stressed in the future because a large number of baby boomers will reach retirement age at about the same time. By 2010, the oldest baby boomers will have reached age 65, the conventional age of retirement. Unlike members of earlier generations, both men and women of the baby-boom generation have high labour force participation rates. Consequently, by the time they retire, many will have large public pension plan entitlements, as well as employment pensions and Registered Retirement Savings Plans. Pressure on pension plans will be further exacerbated by a decline or stagnation in the number of contributors to these plans.

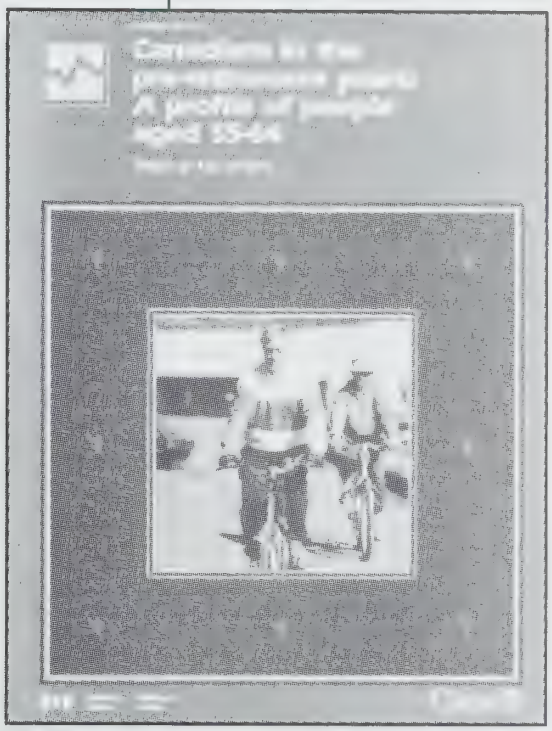
As the population ages, the future supply of people for the labour force may be limited, especially for some occupations. The younger working-age population will be depended upon to provide many services for the rapidly increasing senior population. Some of these services, such as those provided by police, fire fighters or construction workers, require a level of physical strength and agility that is most prevalent in young people. It is possible, therefore, that labour shortages could occur in these types of occupations.

Finding caregivers for seniors will become a more pressing problem as the population ages. Today's small families may find their capacity to provide care for elderly relatives severely limited, both because of family size and the geographic dispersion of family members. Thus, additional institutional facilities, as well as new approaches to care for seniors may be required in the future.

Also, interprovincial migration associated with retirement has begun and is anticipated to increase. British Columbia, for example, has already become a popular destination for seniors. Concentrations of older people in specific areas would require very age-specific services from both public and private sectors.

Craig McKie is a Contributing Editor with ***Canadian Social Trends.***

The Pre-Retirement Years... An Age of Transition



In 1990, Canadians aged 55-64 numbered almost 2.4 million. While much has been written about people aged 65 and over, the pre-retirement age group has received little attention. The Target Group's publication, ***Canadians in the Pre-Retirement Years: A Profile of People Aged 55-64*** provides a comprehensive, statistical overview of the population nearing retirement age.

This 40-page publication starts with a Highlights section for you to scan and decide which topics interest you most. When you want to delve deeper, you'll find the **latest facts** and **concise summaries** on the following issues:

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- Work
- Income
- Housing
- Activity Patterns

Written in an **easy-to-read** style and supported by **more than 40 charts and tables**, the information at the core of *Canadians in the Pre-Retirement Years* is taken from many published and unpublished sources including: a variety of Statistics Canada publications and the General Social Survey.

This is "**must-reading**" for those involved in **planning, designing or implementing services** to older Canadians, as well as those with an interest in the "greying" of Canadian society.

Order your copy of ***Canadians in the Pre-Retirement Years: A Profile of People Aged 55-64*** (Cat. #89-521E) today, for only $36 in Canada, US $43 in the United States, and US $50 in other countries.
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Canada's Immigrants

Recent Trends

by Jane Badets



Immigrants have represented a similar proportion (approximately 16%) of Canada's population during the past several decades. They are not, however, evenly dispersed across the country. Almost all immigrants live in Ontario, British Columbia, Quebec or Alberta, with most in large urban centres. This pattern is particularly striking among recent immigrants: two-thirds of immigrants who came to Canada during the last decade settled in Toronto, Vancouver or Montreal. The birthplace of immigrants has changed in recent years, with an increasing proportion being Asian-born. Still, European-born immigrants accounted for over one-half of all immigrants living in Canada in 1991.

Over 4 million immigrants According to the census, 4.3 million immigrants were living in Canada in 1991. Nearly one-half of these people had been here for more than 20 years. In 1991, 48% of all immigrants had arrived before 1971, while 24% came between 1971 and 1980 and 28% during the last decade.

Between 1986 and 1991, Canada's immigrant population increased by 11%. In contrast, the number of immigrants had grown by just 2% from 1981 to 1986. The overall size of the immigrant population generally reflects changes in annual immigration target levels set by the federal government. For example, the total number of immigrants admitted into the country fell from 129,000 in 1981 to 84,000 in 1985. Since 1986, however, annual levels have risen, reaching almost 231,000 in 1991. This was the highest annual number of immigrants admitted to Canada since 1957, when 282,000 had entered the country. Immigration was highest between 1911 and 1913, when annual totals ranged from 331,000 to 401,000.

Population share remains stable Immigrants have accounted for a relatively stable share of the population since the 1950s, despite the recent growth in numbers. In 1991, immigrants represented 16.1% of the total population, compared with 15.6% in 1986 and 14.7% in 1951.

Earlier in the century, however, when the government was encouraging development of Canada, immigrants had represented a much larger proportion of the total population. Between 1901 and 1911, the immigrant share jumped to 22% from 13%, where it remained until 1931. By 1941, however, the proportion of immigrants in the total population had fallen to 17%, reflecting the sharp drop in immigration during the depression years.

Ontario attracts most immigrants Immigrants are not evenly dispersed

throughout the country. According to the 1991 Census, more than 9 out of 10 immigrants (94%) lived in just 4 provinces: Ontario (55%), British Columbia (17%), Quebec (14%) and Alberta (9%). In contrast, 81% of the Canadian-born population lived in these provinces.

Immigrants represented almost one-quarter of the provincial populations of Ontario and British Columbia in 1991. They also accounted for 15% of Alberta residents, 13% of Manitoba residents and 11% of those in the Yukon. At the same time, immigrants represented less than 10% of the populations in the other provinces and territories.

In the early part of the century, immigrants were much more likely to settle in Western Canada in response to policy efforts to develop that area. Because of this influx into a relatively unpopulated area, immigrants represented much higher proportions of Western provincial populations during the early 1900s. In 1911, for example, immigrants represented 57% of the populations of both British Columbia and Alberta, 50% of Saskatchewan's and 41% of Manitoba's populations. In contrast, 20% of Ontario residents were immigrants in 1911. Since then, the proportion of immigrants in the Western provinces has declined steadily.

On the other hand, the proportion of immigrants in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec has been relatively small but stable over time. In Quebec, for example, immigrants throughout this century have accounted for less than 10% of the provincial population. In 1991, 8.7% of Quebec residents were immigrants, the same proportion as in 1931.

Most immigrants settle in urban areas Immigrants are more likely than the Canadian-born population to live in large urban centres. This explains, in large part, the provincial distribution of immigrants. In 1991, more than one-half of Canada's immigrants lived in the census metropolitan areas (CMAs) of Toronto (34%), Montreal (12%) and Vancouver (11%). In contrast, just over one-quarter of the Canadian-born population lived in these CMAs.

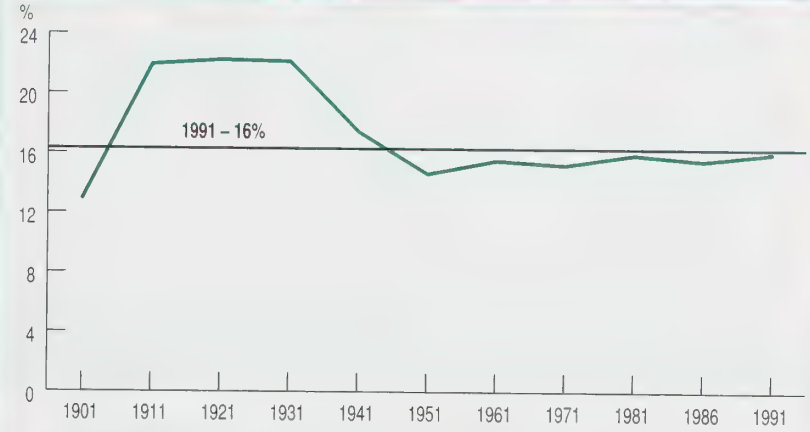
Toronto had the largest immigrant population of any census metropolitan area in 1991. Fully 1.5 million immigrants lived in the Toronto CMA, accounting for 38% of its population. In 1991, immigrants represented 30% of Vancouver's and 17% of Montreal's populations.

Other CMAs in southern Ontario and the Western provinces have also attracted large numbers of immigrants. In Ontario, immigrants constituted 24% of Hamilton's population, and about 20% of the populations of Kitchener, Windsor, London and St. Catharines-Niagara. In Western Canada, after Vancouver, Calgary and Victoria had the highest proportion of immigrants, at 20% each. Immigrants generally made up relatively smaller proportions of the populations of major urban areas in Quebec and the Atlantic provinces.

Immigrants in Quebec were the most likely to live in a major urban area. In 1991, 88% of the province's immigrants lived in the Montreal CMA, compared with just 45% of the total provincial population. In British Columbia, 66% of the immigrant population resided in Vancouver, compared with 49% of the total population. A similar pattern existed in Ontario: 62% of immigrants lived in the Toronto CMA, compared with 39% of all provincial residents.

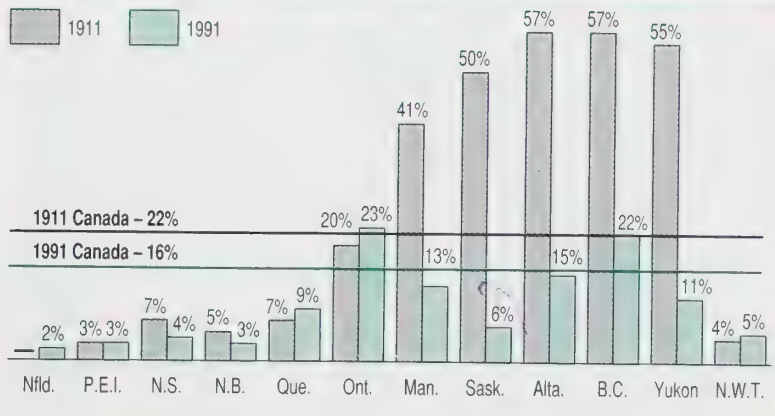
CMAs especially popular among recent arrivals ... Recent immigrants are even more likely than immigrants who have lived in Canada for a long

Immigrants as a percentage of Canada's population, 1901 to 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Immigrants as a percentage of provincial and territorial populations, 1911 and 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

time to live in one of Canada's three largest CMAs. In 1991, about two-thirds (66%) of those who came to Canada between 1981 and 1991 were living in Toronto, Montreal or Vancouver. In contrast, 43% of immigrants who arrived before 1961 resided in these three areas. Toronto attracted the largest share of immigrants who came to Canada between 1981 and 1991 (39%). A further 14% resided in Montreal and 13% in Vancouver.

... even more so among Asian-born Immigrants born in Asia and the Middle East who came to Canada during the last decade were even more likely to settle in Toronto, Vancouver or Montreal. In 1991, nearly three-quarters (73%) of these recent immigrants resided in one of these three CMAs. In fact, those from Asia and the Middle East accounted for 70% of all recent immigrants living in Vancouver in 1991, 50% of those in Toronto and 44% of those in Montreal.

Over half of immigrants born in Europe ... Europeans still represented the largest share of all immigrants living in Canada in 1991, accounting for 54% of all immigrants. This proportion was down from 62% in 1986 and 67% in 1981. Conversely, the percentage of the immigrant population born in Asia and the Middle East increased to 25% in 1991, from 18% in 1986 and 14% in 1981. The remainder of immigrants living in Canada in 1991 were born in the United States (6%), the Caribbean and Central and South America (each 5%), Africa (4%) and Oceania (Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific Islands – 1%).

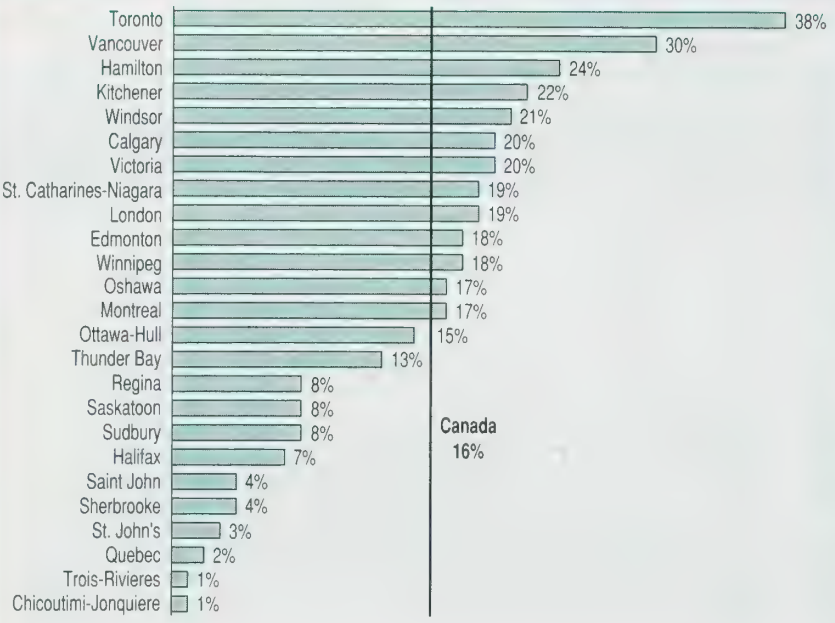
... but picture different for recent immigrants Since 1961, the proportion of European-born immigrants arriving in Canada has declined steadily. Among immigrants who arrived between 1981 and 1991, just 25% were born in Europe. In contrast, European-born immigrants represented 90% of those who arrived before 1961.

On the other hand, the proportion of immigrants born outside of Europe has increased, with those from Asia and the Middle East predominating. Asian-born people (including those born in the Middle East) represented almost one-half (48%) of immigrants who came to Canada between 1981 and 1991, but only 3% of those who came before 1961. The European-born were the second largest group, accounting for one-quarter (25%) of immigrants who arrived between 1981 and 1991. An additional 10% were born in Central and South America, 6% in the Caribbean, 6% in Africa, 4% in the United States and 1% in Oceania.

Top 10 countries of birth Asian countries accounted for 6 of the 10 most frequently reported countries of birth of recent immigrants. Hong Kong was at the top of the list, with 96,500 of the 1.24 million immigrants who came to Canada between 1981 and 1991. Poland ranked second (77,500) and the People's Republic of China, third (75,900). Among the total immigrant population, however, the countries of birth reported most often were mainly European, with the United Kingdom and Italy being the major source countries. Nevertheless, India, the People's Republic of China and Hong Kong were also among the top 10 for all immigrants.

An older population The immigrant population is older than the Canadian-born population. In 1991, 18% of immigrants were aged 65 and over, compared with

Immigrants as a percentage of census metropolitan areas, 1991 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Definitions *Immigrant population* refers to people who are not Canadian citizens by birth, but who have been granted the right to live in Canada permanently by Canadian immigration authorities. Most have taken out Canadian citizenship, but some have not. Some have resided in Canada for a number of years, while others are recent arrivals.

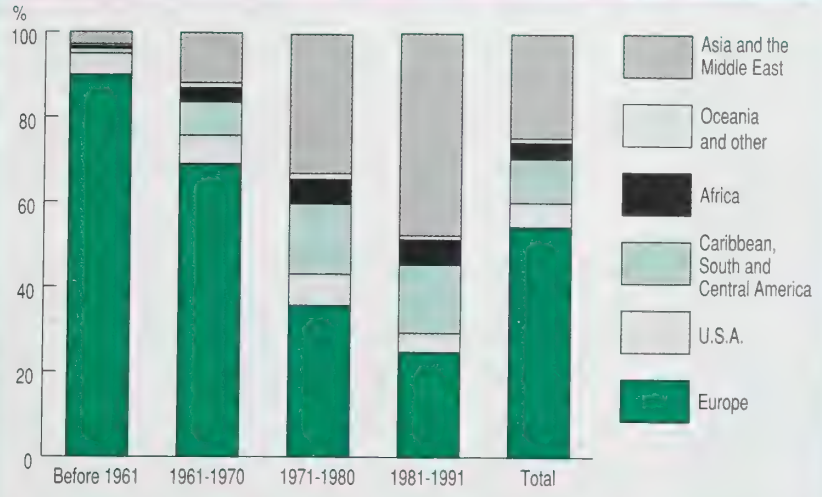
Canadian-born population refers to people who are Canadian citizens by birth. Most are born inside Canada, but there are some who were born outside Canada to Canadian parents.

Top 10 countries of birth for recent immigrants and all immigrants, 1991 CST

Recent immigrants[1]			All immigrants		
	Number	%		Number	%
1. Hong Kong	96,540	7.8	1. United Kingdom	717,745	16.5
2. Poland	77,455	6.3	2. Italy	351,620	8.1
3. P.R. of China	75,840	6.1	3. United States	249,080	5.7
4. India	73,105	5.9	4. Poland	184,695	4.3
5. United Kingdom	71,365	5.8	5. Germany	180,525	4.2
6. Viet Nam	69,520	5.6	6. India	173,670	4.0
7. Philippines	64,290	5.2	7. Portugal	161,180	3.7
8. United States	55,415	4.5	8. P.R. of China	157,405	3.6
9. Portugal	35,440	2.9	9. Hong Kong	152,455	3.5
10. Lebanon	34,065	2.8	10. Netherlands	129,615	3.0
Total	**1,238,455**	**100.0**	**Total**	**4,342,890**	**100.0**

[1]Immigrants who came to Canada between 1981 and 1991.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

Immigrant population by place of birth and period of immigration, 1991 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

10% of the Canadian-born. At the same time, only 5% of immigrants were under age 15, compared with 24% of people born in Canada. Because of these different age distributions, 26% of all seniors in Canada in 1991 were immigrants, whereas only 4% of children were immigrants.

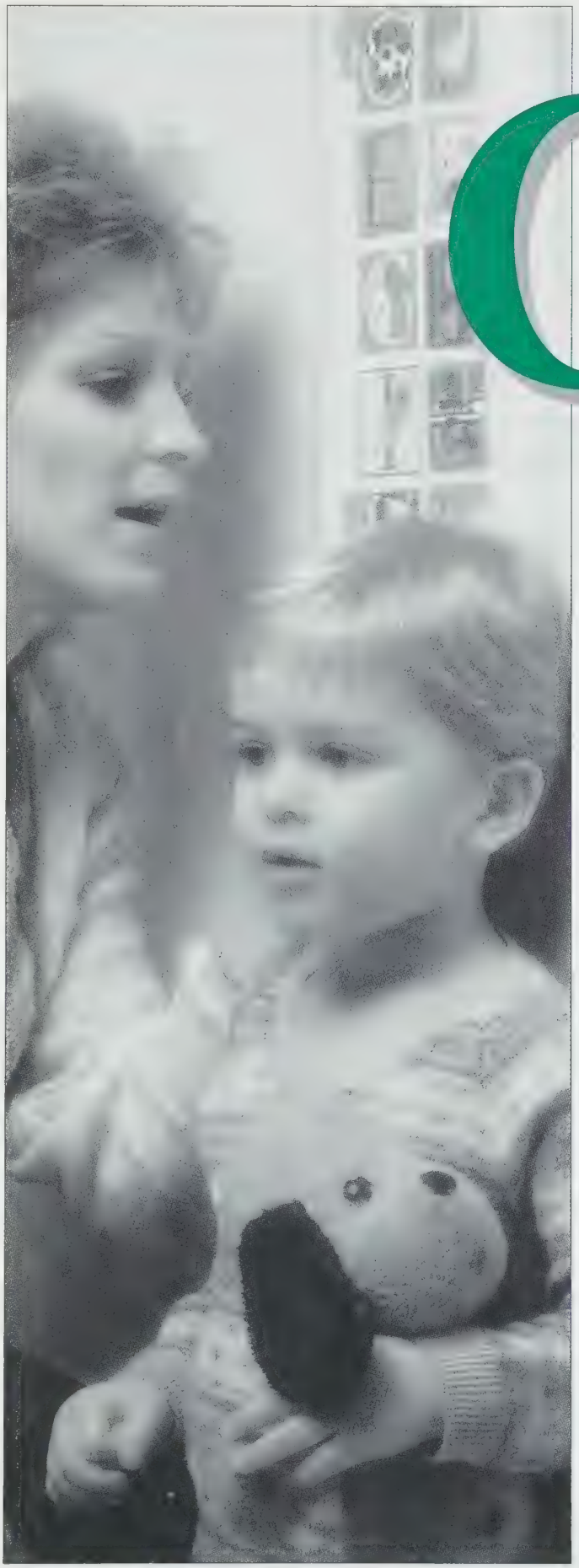
One of the main reasons for the different age distributions of the immigrant and Canadian-born population is that most people who immigrate to Canada do so when they are adults. Of the total immigrant population, 62% were aged 20 and over when they came to Canada, whereas 27% were aged 5-19 and only 11% were under age 5. Children born to immigrant parents after their arrival in Canada are part of the Canadian-born population.

Most immigrants obtain citizenship Among immigrants eligible to become Canadian citizens, 81% had done so by 1991. This proportion had increased from 79% in 1986 and 75% in 1981. Immigrants must reside in Canada for a minimum of three years before they are eligible to apply for Canadian citizenship.

Traditionally, the longer immigrants have lived in Canada, the more likely they have been to obtain citizenship. Of the immigrant population eligible to become Canadian citizens, almost all (92%) who came to Canada before 1961 had obtained their citizenship. In contrast, 65% of those who came between 1981 and 1987 had become Canadian citizens.

Conclusion Since Confederation, immigrants have composed an important segment of Canada's population. They have provided labour, capital and creativity, thereby contributing to the social and economic development of the country. All immigrants, however, face a transition period during which they become familiar with Canadian culture and institutions and may have to learn a new language. The provision of services to assist new immigrants through this period will likely present a variety of challenges to Canadians and their government.

Jane Badets is an analyst with the *Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*



Changes in Family Living

by Pina La Novara

Most Canadians live in a family. The proportion, however, has been declining. As well, the structure of the families in which Canadians live has changed considerably in recent decades. In particular, the number of lone-parent families, most of which are headed by women, has increased. There are also more common-law families now than in the past. These shifts have been accompanied by a decline in the share of married-couple families, which, nonetheless, remain the vast majority. Average family size is smaller now than it was during the 1970s, not only because of these changes in family structure, but also due to the decline in the number of children families are having. In addition, the share of families without children living at home has risen in recent years.

Most people live in families According to the 1991 Census, 83% of all Canadians lived in one of Canada's 7.4 million families as a spouse, parent or never-married child. This proportion, however, has declined over the last two decades, falling from 87% in 1971.

Seniors, especially women, are much less likely than younger people to live in a family. In 1991, for example, just 44% of women aged 65 and over lived in a family. This contrasts sharply with 73% of men that age and 83% of all people aged 15-64.

In 1991, 17% of the population did not live in a family. The largest proportion of these people lived on their own. Over

2.3 million people, or 8% of the total population, lived alone that year. This was the same proportion as in 1986, but higher than in 1976 (5%) and 1981 (7%).

Given the large proportion of elderly women who do not live in families, it is not unexpected that a relatively high proportion live on their own. In 1991, 34% of women aged 65 and over lived alone, compared with 14% of men that age and 8% of all people aged 15-64. The high percentage of elderly women living alone is due, in large part, to women having a longer life expectancy than men: many women live on their own after their spouses die.

The remainder of people not living in a family in 1991 lived in a variety of settings. Some lived with non-relatives (6%), 2% were in institutions and 1% lived with a relative other than a spouse, parent or never-married child.

Lone-parent families increasing The number of lone-parent families increased substantially over the past two decades. In 1991, lone-parent families numbered 954,700, up 12% from 853,600 in 1986, and double the 1971 figure of 477,500. Over the same period, the proportion of lone-parent families also increased. By 1991, such families accounted for 13% of all families, about the same as 5 years earlier, but up from 9% in 1971.

Among the provinces, there was little variation in the percentage of all families headed by a lone parent in 1991. Proportions ranged from a high of 14% in Quebec to a low of just under 12% in Saskatchewan and Newfoundland.

Most lone-parent families are mothers with their children: in 1991, the proportion was 82%. This high proportion is partly due to the long-term increase in the divorce rate, with mothers usually receiving custody of children involved in marriage break-ups. There is also a growing incidence of never-married women, especially in the younger age ranges, raising children on their own.

Female lone parents tend to be younger than their male counterparts. In 1991, 61% of female lone parents were under age 45, compared with 46% of male lone parents.

Common law – a growing family form In recent years, the reported number of common-law families has increased sharply. In 1991, there were 725,950 common-law families, an increase of 49%. Common-law families represented 10% of all families in 1991, up from 7% in 1986 and 6% in 1981. At least part of this rise is due to an increase in reporting. In 1991, a common-law question was asked directly for the first time on the census questionnaire. In addition, people may be more willing to report living common law now than in the past because of decreased social stigma attached to this type of living arrangement.

Common-law families were most prevalent, by far, in Quebec, where they accounted for 16% of all families in 1991. This contrasts sharply with a proportion of 10% or less in the remaining provinces. For example, common-law families accounted for 10% of all families in British Columbia and only 6% in Prince Edward Island.

Common-law spouses tend to be relatively young, with more than one-half (57%) of them aged 20-34. Not surprisingly, given

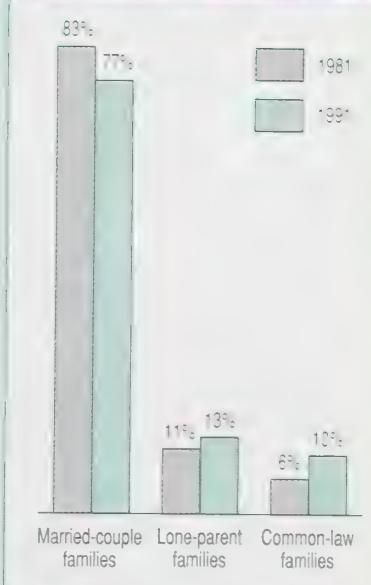
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Family structure, by province, 1991

	Families					Average family size	Families without children at home
	Lone-parent	Common-law	Married-couple		Total[1]		
	%				Number		%
Nfld.	11.9	6.6	81.4	100	150,715	3.3	25.1
P.E.I.	12.9	5.9	81.1	100	33,895	3.2	30.3
N.S.	13.5	8.2	78.2	100	244,615	3.1	33.8
N.B.	13.4	8.0	78.6	100	198,010	3.1	31.9
Que.	14.3	16.3	69.4	100	1,883,230	3.0	34.1
Ont.	12.6	6.7	80.7	100	2,726,740	3.1	35.0
Man.	13.1	7.4	79.4	100	285,935	3.1	35.8
Sask.	11.7	6.9	81.4	100	257,555	3.2	36.7
Alta.	12.4	8.9	78.6	100	667,985	3.1	34.4
B.C.	12.1	9.6	78.3	100	887,660	3.0	40.3
Canada[1]	**12.9**	**9.8**	**77.2**	**100**	**7,356,170**	**3.1**	**35.1**

[1]Includes the Yukon and Northwest Territories.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

Distribution of families, by structure, 1981 and 1991



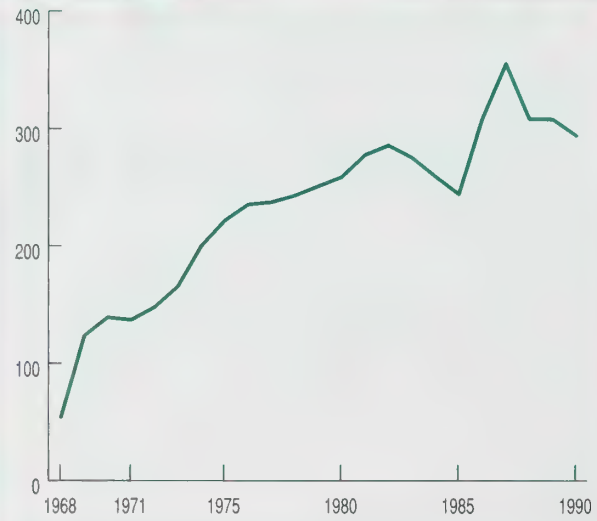
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 93-312 and 92-935.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

The *Divorce Act* and lone parenthood Changes to the *Divorce Act* have undoubtedly had an effect on the number and characteristics of lone parents. Prior to 1968, there were few divorces in Canada. The 1968 *Divorce Act*, however, offered greater access to divorce by broadening the legal grounds on which divorce could be granted. As a result, the divorce rate increased more than 5 times between the late 1960s and the mid-1980s, rising to over 250 divorces per 100,000 population from around 50.

Restrictions on divorce were further eased when a new *Divorce Act* was passed in 1985. Again, there was a large increase in the number of divorces granted following the introduction of the new legislation. By 1987, the divorce rate rose to 355 per 100,000 population. However, much of this increase appears to have been accounted for by people who put off divorcing in 1984 and 1985, in anticipation of the revised legislation, and then initiated proceedings once the new law was enacted. Indeed, in 1988 and 1989, the divorce rate dropped back to its 1986 level (around 310 divorces per 100,000 population) and then fell a further 4% in 1990 to 294 divorces per 100,000 people.

Divorces per 100,000 population, 1968 to 1990



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 82-003S and 84-205.

this age distribution, most women (64%) and men (63%) in these unions had never been married.

Married-couple families still the majority There has been only a small increase in the number of married-couple families in recent years. Between 1986 and 1991, the number of such families rose 5%, to 5.7 million from 5.4 million. Married-couple families continue to account for the majority of all families, although the proportion has declined slightly. In 1991, married-couple families made up 77% of all families, down from 80% five years earlier.

About 80% of families in all provinces, with the exception of Quebec, were married-couple families in 1991. That year, just 69% of Quebec families were married-couple families. This pattern is not unexpected, given the relatively high proportion of common-law families in Quebec.

While most men and women still get married, they are doing so at later ages. In 1990, the average age at first marriage for both brides and bridegrooms was a full three years higher than it had been two decades earlier. The average age for brides marrying for the first time was 26.0 years in 1990, compared with 22.6 years in 1971. Over the same period, the average age for first-time bridegrooms increased to 27.9 years from 24.9. Still, the difference between the average ages of brides and bridegrooms at the time of their first marriage – about two years – has not changed.

As well, many Canadians are now marrying more than once. One out of every four men and women who married in 1990 had been previously married. The rise in remarriage is largely the result of the increase in divorce rates which occurred during the last two decades. This has increased the number of people in a position to remarry.

Smaller families During the past twenty years, family size has declined. In 1991, there was an average of 3.1 persons per family in Canada, down from 3.7 in 1971. Average family size, however, remained stable between 1986 and 1991.

Large families are becoming rare in Canada. In 1991, only 1% of families with children at home had 5 or more children living at home. In comparison, in 1971, 10% of families with children had 5 or more children at home.

The increase in the number of families with no children living at home has also contributed to the decline in average family size. In 1991, over one-third (35%) of all families in Canada did not have children living with them. This was slightly higher than the proportion in 1986 (33%). These families include all couples who have chosen to remain childless, as well as younger couples who have not yet had children and older couples who have reached the "empty nest" stage (their children are no longer living at home).

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1994 International Year of the Family
Année internationale de la famille

Mixed-Language Couples and Their Children

by Pierre Turcotte



According to the 1991 Census, 10% of couples[1] in Canada were mixed-language[2] couples. The three most important types of mixed couples are: English and French, English and Allophone, and French and Allophone partners. Allophone partners are those whose mother tongue (the language first learned in childhood and still understood) is neither English nor French. Members of linguistic minorities were more likely than others to be part of a mixed-language couple. These included English people in Quebec, French people outside Quebec and Allophones throughout the country.

Partners with different mother tongues may teach their children both or just one of the languages. Some children learn neither of the parents' mother tongues. When one of the parents is Allophone, children most often learn one of Canada's official languages – English or French – as their mother tongue. The language children first learn is affected not only by the language mix of the parents, but also by the language of the majority in their region.

Language minorities more likely to mix In areas where a person's mother tongue is a minority language, there are fewer same-language partners to choose from. Consequently, a greater proportion of those whose language is in the minority form mixed-language couples.

In Quebec, almost one-third of English spouses lived with a partner with a different mother tongue in 1991: 26% with a French partner and 5% with an Allophone. In contrast, less than 4% of French spouses in Quebec had a partner with a different mother tongue.

Outside of Quebec, just over one-third (37%) of French spouses had a partner with a different mother tongue: 33% lived with an English partner and 4% with an Allophone. This compares with only 7% of English partners outside Quebec living in a mixed-language couple.

[1] The term "couples" includes both married couples and those living common law (that is, living in a couple relationship outside of marriage).

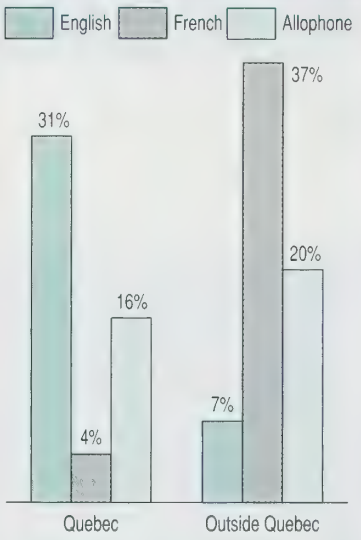
[2] A mixed-language couple is one in which the spouses do not have the same mother tongue. Where a spouse reported more than one mother tongue, all the languages reported were different from their spouse's. Couples, where neither spouse was English or French, were also excluded from the mixed-language couple categories, although they may be made up of different language Allophone partners.

Spouses in mixed-language couples, by mother tongue, 1991

	Total		English		French		Other than English or French	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Canada	**1,231,490**	**9.6**	**567,610**	**7.7**	**274,410**	**8.8**	**389,470**	**19.4**
Quebec	218,125	6.8	79,955	31.2	94,095	3.6	44,075	16.5
Canada outside Quebec	1,013,365	10.6	487,655	6.9	180,315	37.4	345,395	19.8
New Brunswick	33,365	9.7	16,330	7.6	14,930	12.9	2,105	41.4
Ontario	514,880	10.8	246,555	7.3	98,370	39.9	169,955	16.7
Rest of Canada	465,120	10.4	224,770	6.4	67,015	56.0	173,335	24.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census unpublished data.

Percentage of spouses in mixed-language couples, by mother tongue, 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

The proportion of Allophones living in a mixed-language couple was similar for those living inside and outside of Quebec. In 1991, 16% of Allophone spouses in Quebec and 20% of those outside Quebec lived in a mixed-language couple. The proportion was much higher in New Brunswick (41%).

Language mixes reflect regional populations Well over one-half of all mixed-language couples in Quebec were English-French. In 1991, 60% of Quebec's mixed-language couples were English-French, 26% were French-Allophone and 14% were English-Allophone. Outside Quebec, however, English-Allophone couples predominated. In 1991, 64% of mixed-language couples were English-Allophone, 32% were English-French and 4% were French-Allophone.

English-French couples were much more common in New Brunswick than anywhere else in Canada, including Quebec. In 1991, 87% of all mixed-language couples in New Brunswick were English-French. This is due, in large part, to the high representation of the minority language group in that area: 33% of New Brunswick's population was French in 1991. This was proportionately the largest official language minority in any province.

Common-law couples more likely to mix Members of language minorities in a common-law relationship were much more likely to be in a mixed-language couple than those who were married. This held true regardless of age.

Both inside and outside Quebec about 50% of Allophones in common-law unions lived with a partner whose mother tongue was English or French. In contrast, 15% of married Allophones in Quebec and 19% of those outside Quebec had a spouse whose mother tongue was English or French.

For the English minority in Quebec, 49% of common-law partners lived in a mixed-language couple, compared with 29% of married people. In contrast, the incidence of English partners in mixed-language couples outside of Quebec was the same (about 7%) for common-law partners and married people.

Outside of Quebec, however, 46% of French common-law partners lived in mixed-language couples, compared with 36% of their married counterparts. In Quebec, French married partners were just as likely as common-law partners to have spouses with a different mother tongue (3.6% versus 3.5% for common law).

Couple's language mix affects children's mother tongue The reproduction of language groups depends not only on fertility, but on the tendency for parents to teach their mother tongue to their children. Since the language spoken at home becomes, in most cases, the mother tongue of the children, parents play an obvious role in determining their children's first language identification.

The language learned by children of mixed-language couples depends on their parents' languages and the majority language of the region. In 1991, 67% of the children of English-French couples had learned English, 23% had learned French and 10% had learned both languages as a mother tongue. Outside Quebec, the tendency for children of English-French couples to learn English was especially strong (79%). In Quebec, this situation was reversed, but the influence of the majority language was not as pronounced. About one-half (49%) of Quebec children living with an English and a French parent had learned French first, while one-third (34%) had learned English. There was a much greater tendency for the children in this type of family in Quebec to learn both languages: 17%, compared with 8% outside Quebec.

Mother tongue definition in the Canadian Census

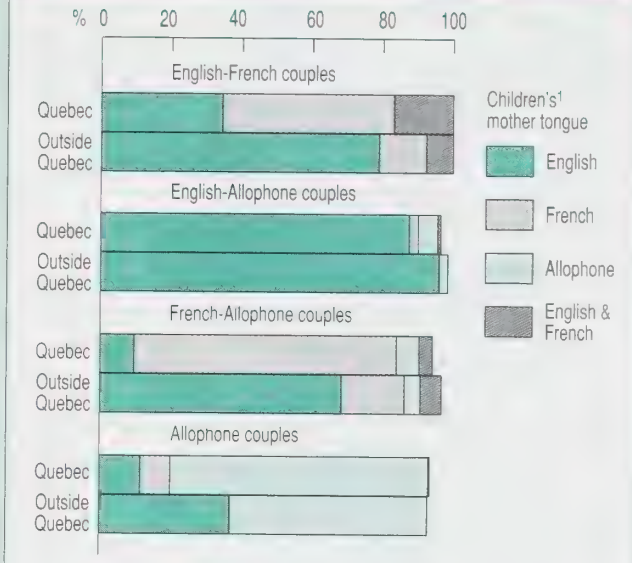
All Canadians were asked the mother tongue question on the 1991 Census. The question reads as follows:

"What is the first language that this person first learned at home in childhood and still understands?"

Four out of five households received a short questionnaire that contained only one language question, that on mother tongue. One out of five households received the long questionnaire that included four language-related questions: two questions on the knowledge of official and non-official languages, the question on language spoken most often at home, and last, the question on mother tongue.

Changes in certain aspects of the collection and processing of data on mother tongue from one census to the next have introduced difficulties when making comparisons over time (for more information see the 1991 Census report *Mother Tongue*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 93-313). This article focuses on the 1991 Census results only.

Mother tongue of children of mixed-language and Allophone couples, 1991



[1]Excludes children with one official and one non-official language mother tongue.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

In 1991, almost all children of English-Allophone couples had English as their mother tongue, regardless of where they lived. In Quebec, this was the case for 88% of the children of English-Allophone couples. Outside Quebec, 96% had English as their mother tongue.

In 1991, among the children of French-Allophone couples across Canada, a little over one-half (53%) had French as a mother tongue, 32% had English and 6% had a language other than English or French. This reflects the concentration of French-Allophone couples in Quebec and the tendency to pass on the majority language. In 1991, 75% of the children living with French-Allophone parents in Quebec had learned French first, 10% had learned English and 6% had learned another language. In contrast, most French-Allophone parents outside of Quebec taught their children English (69%), even though it was neither parent's mother tongue.

Among English couples and French couples with the same mother tongue, the first language learned by their children is nearly always that of the parents. This tendency persists even when the couple's language is in the minority. In 1991, 98% of English couples in Quebec, and 93% of French couples outside Quebec had passed their mother tongue on to their children. Outside of Quebec, New Brunswick and Ontario, however, 79% of French-language couples had taught their children French as a first language.

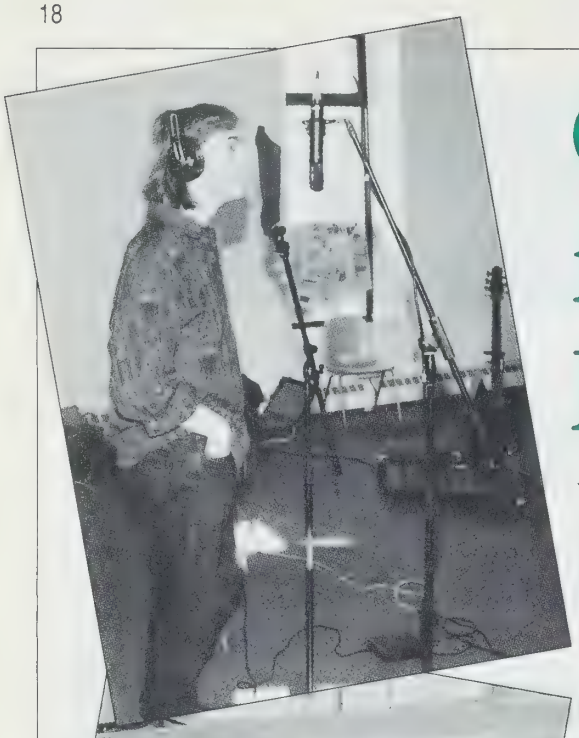
Allophone couples are less likely than English or French couples to pass their own mother tongue on to their children. In Canada, 33% of their children learned English as their mother tongue and 59% first learned their parent's language. Allophone couples in Quebec, however, were more likely than those living outside of Quebec to pass on their own mother tongue. In 1991, 73% of their children learned a mother tongue other than English or French. When Allophone parents in Quebec did teach their children one of the official languages, however, it was more likely to be English than French. In 1991, 12% of the children in these families had learned English first, while 9% had learned French. Outside of Quebec, 37% of the children of Allophone couples had learned English, while 56% had learned a language other than English or French.

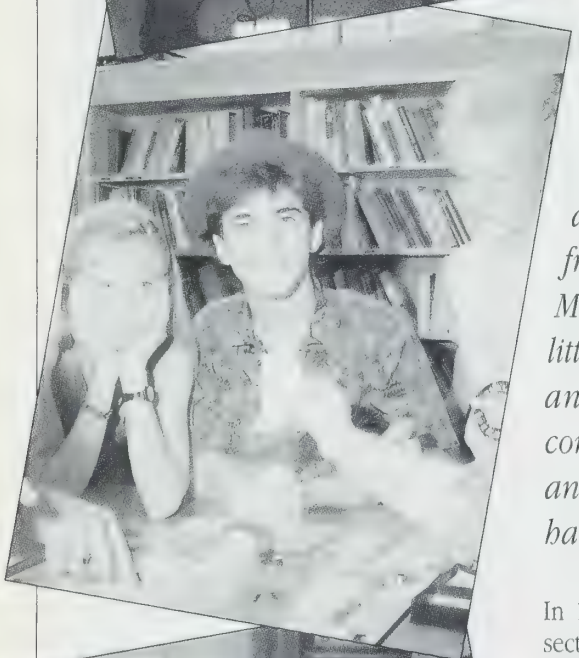
More "mother" in "mother tongue"

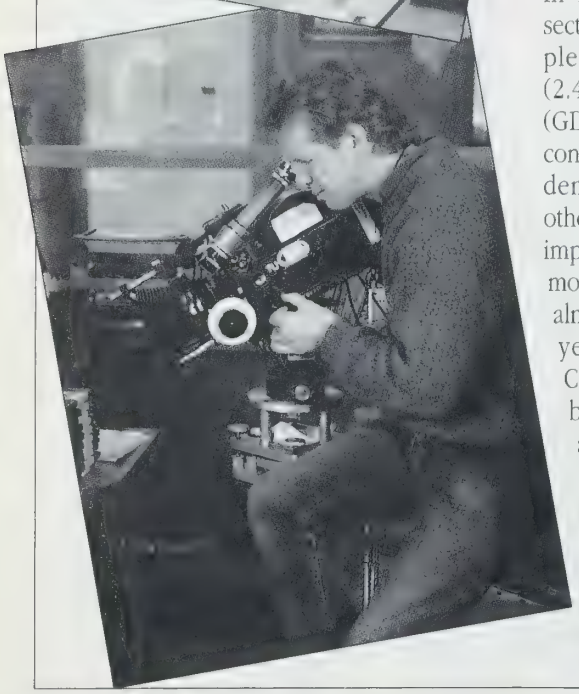
Mothers in mixed-language couples were more likely than fathers to teach their mother tongue to their children. For example, 75% of children living with an English mother and a French father learned English. In comparison, when the father was English and the mother was French, 60% of the children had learned English first. Conversely, 29% of the children with French mothers and English fathers had learned French, compared with 17% when the father was French and the mother English.

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Canadian Content in the Cultural Marketplace

by Jeffrey Frank and Michel Durand

The international environment in which Canada's cultural industries operate influences both the availability and the demand for Canadian products. Canada's great size, relatively small population and proximity to the United States create an unusual cultural marketplace. Most sound recordings, films, books and broadcast programming sold in Canada are imported, mainly from the United States, or are produced by foreign-controlled firms. Many American and other foreign firms located in Canada take little or no risk distributing popular "mass appeal" recordings, films and books. Despite this situation, the market share of foreign-controlled firms in cultural industries has declined in the past decade and sales of Canadian-produced sound recordings, films and books have increased.

In 1990, the Canadian arts and culture sector[1] employed more than 330,000 people and contributed over $14 billion (2.4%) to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In addition, the sector generated considerable spending, leading to further demand for goods and services from other industries. Including these indirect impacts, arts and culture accounted for more than 465,000 jobs and contributed almost $22 billion (3.7%) to the GDP that year. The arts and culture sector in Canada, however, is important not only because of its economic impact, but also because of its less quantifiable role in influencing how Canadians think about themselves.

Consumer spending on culture up since 1969 Shifts in spending patterns result from changing income levels, prices and tastes, as well as changes in the availability of products. According to the Family Expenditures Survey, shifts in the spending patterns of Canadian families have occurred since 1969. In 1990, more than 8% of current household consumption was on recreation and cultural goods and services. This was up from just over 6% in 1969. Over the same period, the proportion spent on food declined steadily to 18%, from nearly 24%. In contrast, shelter accounted for 33% of family spending in 1990, up from 28% in 1969. Although spending on recreation and culture as a proportion of all family expenditures increased slightly over this period, such spending tends to come from discretionary income. It is not surprising, therefore, that during times of economic recession, consumers' budgets for cultural products shrink.

Spending on particular cultural activities has also changed since 1969. This is due, in part, to changes in technology that have affected the availability and the affordability of different cultural products. Spending on video tapes and video discs has increased since these products appeared in the late 1970s. In contrast, spending on movie theatre admissions decreased since 1978, though it rebounded somewhat between 1986 and 1990. Family expenditures on sound recording products (records, tapes and compact discs) and live stage performances increased steadily between 1969 and 1990, while spending on printed material remained relatively stable, except for spending on newspapers which declined slightly.

Governments spent nearly $6 billion on culture in 1990-91 Federal, provincial and municipal governments spent a total of $5.9 billion on culture in 1990-91. Federal cultural spending amounted to $2.9 billion or about 2% of the total federal budget. Spending was concentrated on support for the broadcasting, book and periodical publishing, film and video and sound recording industries. Although this support accounted for two-thirds of all federal cultural spending, most of these funds were directed toward sustaining cultural infrastructure, mainly the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC). In 1990-91, just 14% of federal government expenditures on culture ($405 million) was direct assistance to organizations and artists. In contrast, 62% of the $1.8 billion provincial governments spent on culture ($1.1 billion) went directly to organizations and artists. Municipal governments channelled nearly four-fifths of the $1.1 billion they spent on culture into libraries.

Radio and sound recording According to the Radio Listening Database, in the fall of 1992, 94% of Canadians listened to radio at least once each week. Children and teens listened somewhat less (79% and 90%, respectively) than adults (96%). On average, Canadians listened to about 19 hours of radio each week.

The Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC) licences radio stations to broadcast material within specific formats. In 1992, Adult Contemporary and Gold formats accounted for one-quarter of all radio listening time, while the middle-of-the-road format (softer than Adult Contemporary with most program selections released before 1960) made up another 20%. Country (12%), Album-Oriented-Rock (10%) and CBC (9%) stations each accounted for smaller proportions of the market. "Other" Canadian (8%), Contemporary (5%), Easy Listening (4%) and [illegible] stations (4%) made up the remainder.

[1] For this estimate, the arts and culture sector covers most cultural industries. These include written media, film and video, sound recording, broadcasting, wholesale and retail trade, non-profit performing arts, heritage institutions, visual arts, as well as some government cultural activity. Excluded are commercial performing arts, wholesale and retail trade among non-specialized firms and other activities such as advertising and design.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Culture Statistics Program

Most of the data used in this article were produced by the Culture Statistics Program (CSP) at Statistics Canada. The CSP consists of a series of surveys covering cultural activities and institutions, as well as cultural industries. In addition, the CSP has begun work on the Cultural Labour Force Project which will provide detailed information about people who work in the cultural sector. For information on products, special tabulations or specific surveys, contact Iain McKellar, Assistant Director, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6 (613-951-9038).

CRTC Canadian content rules *Radio:* According to the Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC), a musical selection qualifies as Canadian content if it meets any two of the following criteria:

- The music was composed by a Canadian.[1]
- The lyrics were written by a Canadian.[1]
- The instrumentation or lyrics were principally performed by a Canadian.
- The live performance was wholly performed in Canada and broadcast live in Canada or wholly recorded in Canada.

For AM radio, at least 30% of all music aired must meet this definition of Canadian content. Moreover, a Canadian must have composed the music or written the lyrics to a minimum of 5% of the number of selections broadcast. In recognition of FM radio's diversity of formats (and the corresponding supply of appropriate Canadian content recordings), the CRTC allows different levels of required Canadian content. The quota ranges from 10% to 30% for different groups of FM radio stations. AM and FM stations must also play at least 25% Canadian content between 6:00 a.m. and 7:00 p.m., Monday through Friday.

Television: To be considered Canadian, a television program must have a Canadian producer and must earn a minimum 6 of a possible 10 points based on key creative positions. The CRTC awards points when the duties of these positions are performed by Canadians. There are additional criteria regarding financial and creative control for programs involving foreign production partners. The CRTC requires that Canadian programs be used to fill at least 60% of the overall schedules of both public and private television broadcasters.

[1] A 1993 amendment provides that when a Canadian receives at least 50% of the credit for both the music and the lyrics, a musical selection is given one of the two points necessary to qualify as Canadian. The amendment affects only musical selections recorded or performed live after September 1, 1991.

Radio broadcasters depend on the international sound recording industry to provide musical material for most of their programming. The Canadian recording industry is dominated by a small number of large, foreign-controlled multinational companies. These companies also control much of the distribution network in Canada. Smaller Canadian companies often depend on securing distribution agreements with larger multinationals. The concentration of foreign influence in the industry has increased in recent years with the take-over of two multinationals by large Japanese conglomerates. In 1990-91, 14 foreign-controlled companies took in 88% of the $509 million in sound recording sales in Canada. In addition, these companies accounted for 79% of new releases, up from 72% in 1988-89.

Canadian-controlled companies, however, produce most Canadian content recordings. In 1990-91, Canadian companies accounted for 71% of new Canadian content releases. These releases, however, made up only one-half of Canadian companies' sales. On the other hand, foreign companies accounted for just 29% of new Canadian content releases, while having 43% of all Canadian content sales. Thus, Canadian companies produce more Canadian content recordings with smaller sales, while multinationals generate fewer but more successful Canadian content recordings.

Generally, the more airplay a recording receives, the more it will sell. By giving Canadian recordings more broadcast exposure, Canadian content regulations stimulate demand for Canadian sound recording products. It is estimated that before the implementation of Canadian content regulations, Canadian music made up only 4% to 7% of all selections played on radio.[2] In accordance with CRTC regulations, radio stations must now play a minimum of 10% to 30% Canadian content, depending on their format. The introduction of Canadian content regulations in 1971 was followed by substantial growth in the production of Canadian content recordings. In 1990-91, sales of Canadian content recordings reached $54 million, up from $28 million in 1984-85. This represented a real average annual increase of over 11% (using the industry product price index).

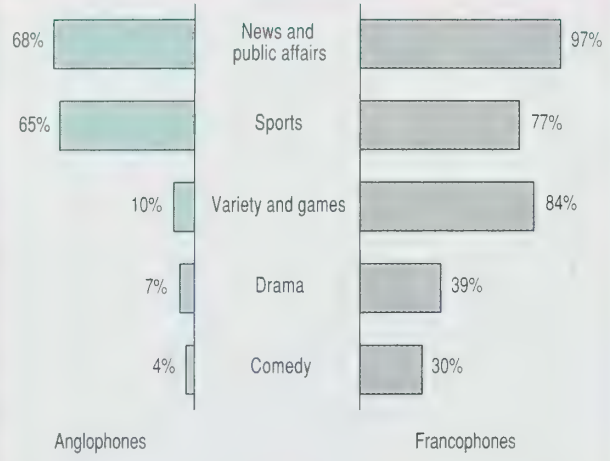
Television, film and video According to Statistics Canada's television viewing data, Canadians watched an average of 23

Expenditures on selected cultural activities, 1969 to 1990 CST

	Average family expenditures (constant 1986 $)				
	1969	1978	1982	1986	1990
Admission to museums	N/A	27	18	24	21
Live stage performances	19	23	36	39	50
Books	106	109	94	104	110
Magazines	24	54	56	51	57
Newspapers	94	87	79	82	83
Movies	57	84	47	41	55
Records, tapes and CDs	32	45	54	63	87
Video tapes and discs	0	0	6	41	85

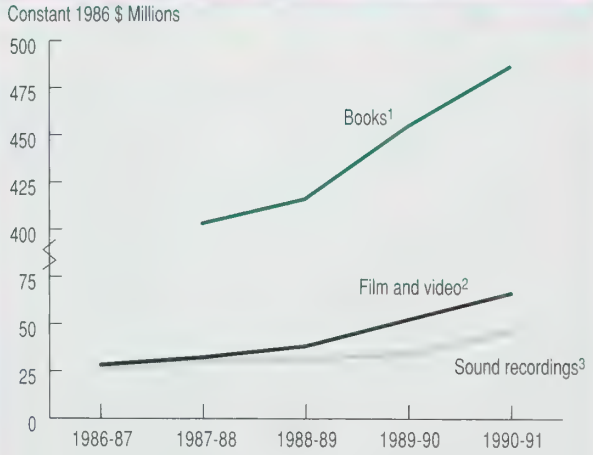
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Family Expenditures.

Percentage of television viewing time spent watching Canadian content programs, Anglophones and Francophones, 1991 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-208.

Total sales of cultural products with Canadian content, 1986-87 to 1990-91 CST



[1]Canadian authored titles.
[2]Distribution of Canadian film and video.
[3]Canadian content records, tapes and compact discs.
Source: Statistics Canada, Culture Statistics Program.

hours of television per week in 1991, the lowest level in the past decade. Residents of Newfoundland watched more television (27 hours per week) than residents of other regions. In addition, Canadians aged 60 years and older spent an average of 34 hours per week watching television, more than any other age group.

Foreign programming, mostly American, accounted for nearly two-thirds (64%) of all television programming that Canadians watched in 1991. That year, 85% of the time that Canadians watched television drama was spent on foreign programming. Drama constituted the largest single category of television programming watched, occupying 29% of Canadians' viewing time. Almost all (92%) comedy shows that Canadians watched were foreign in origin. All comedy programming accounted for 17% of total viewing time.

When it comes to news and sports, however, Canadians prefer Canadian programming. In 1991, the proportion of time spent watching Canadian content programs was 75% for news and public affairs and 68% for sports. That year, news and sports made up 23% and 7%, respectively, of Canadians' total viewing time.

Canadians who most often speak French are more likely to watch Canadian content programming than those who speak mainly English. Overall, 63% of viewing time among Francophones was spent watching Canadian programs, compared with 27% among Anglophones. In 1991, 96% of news and public affairs and 39% of drama programming seen by French speakers was Canadian. These findings are not surprising given that most American programming is only available in English.

The supply of Canadian content programming – that is, the proportion of Canadian television broadcast schedules filled with Canadian programs – has increased in recent years. The Canadian content of news and public affairs programs has always been very high. In 1990, 52% of this type of programming on English stations, and 100% on French stations, was Canadian. Canadian drama, in contrast, accounted for only 10% of total drama programming on English stations and 33% on French stations in 1990. Overall, this was up substantially, however, from just 6% in 1984. Over half of variety and game shows were Canadian in 1990 (19% of English shows and 96% of French shows), compared with 42% in 1984.

Foreign-controlled companies continue to account for a substantial portion of earned revenue in the film and video production industry. Foreign firms' share of film and video production revenue, however, declined substantially in the past decade. In 1989-90, foreign companies held 59% of these revenues (including 86% of the theatrical market, 54% of the television market and 26% of the pay television and home video markets), down from 74% in 1982-83.

As with the sound recording industry, foreign firms largely control film and video distribution. In 1989-90, 21 foreign-controlled companies represented just 16% of firms in the industry, but accounted for 59% of all distribution revenues. Canadian films and videos continue to account for only a small proportion of distribution companies' total revenues. In 1989-90, Canadian films and videos generated 9% of distribution revenue, up from 7% in 1984-85. Canadian theatrical films made up just 4% of theatrical movie distribution revenues. This represented a slight decrease from 5% in 1988-89, but about the same proportion as in 1984-85. Also in 1989-90, 10% of licensing costs paid to producers by distributors and videocassette wholesalers was for Canadian-owned copyrights.

Printed material and publishing The share of domestic book sales by foreign-controlled publishers and exclusive agents has fallen in recent years. In 1990-91, 40% of the sales of books published in Canada was generated by foreign publishers, down slightly from 45% in 1986-87. Over the same period, foreign-controlled firms' share of the exclusive agency market fell to 53% in 1990-91, from 66% in 1986-87. An exclusive agent is a firm that, in return for agreeing to publicize and market the works of another firm, is authorized to act as sole representative for the sale of those works.

Own-book sales of publishers operating in Canada increased to $813 million in 1990-91, up 34% from $606 million in 1986-87. Of the 8,130 new titles published in Canada in 1990-91, 5,850 were authored by Canadians, down slightly from a high of 6,100 in 1989-90, but up substantially from 4,560 in 1987-88. Meanwhile, sales from exports of Canadian books increased to $33 million in 1990-91, from $25 million in 1987-88. This represented a real average annual increase of nearly 6% (using the printing and publishing industry product price index).

In 1990-91, subscription and single-copy sales of Canadian periodicals increased to $248 million, up 33% from $187 million in 1985-86. Similarly, the combined sales of Canadian daily and non-daily newspapers increased to $689 million in 1990-91, up 29% from $533 million in 1985-86. The major source of revenue for periodicals and newspapers, however, is not subscription and single-copy sales, but advertising sales. In 1990-91, advertising sales accounted for 65% of the $884 million in total revenue for periodicals, and 80% of the $3.5 billion in revenue for newspapers.

Conclusion Foreign-controlled firms continue to be the dominant force in Canada's cultural industries. In sound recording, film and video, and to a lesser extent written media, foreign firms have a firm grip on market share. Canadian radio and television broadcasters, in turn, rely on the output of these industries to fill their programming schedules. Nevertheless, Canadian-produced cultural commodities continue to find and expand their markets. Although the Canadian content share of cultural products has not increased sharply in recent years, it has remained stable in some areas and made moderate gains in others.

2 Paul Audley, Canada's Cultural Industries, Ottawa: Canadian Institute for Economic Policy, 1983 177.

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Defining Toronto

by Bruce Orok



According to the 1991 Census, Toronto had almost 4 million residents and was home to 14% of the country's population that year. As such, Toronto continues to be Canada's largest census metropolitan area (CMA), a ranking it has held since 1976. In addition, Toronto residents outnumber people living in the 4 Atlantic provinces by over 1.5 million. The Toronto CMA was also more populous than British Columbia, Canada's third largest province. Other social and economic indicators, such as Toronto being the headquarters of Canada's financial community, confirm Toronto's stature as Canada's largest, if not most influential, metropolitan area. The continued rapid growth of an already expansive Toronto leads to an interesting question: to what area do people refer when they talk about Toronto?

Satellite images of southern Ontario reflect common knowledge that Toronto is part of the ongoing urban sprawl that has created a built-up area extending roughly from Hamilton in the west, to Barrie in the north and Oshawa in the east. These satellite images suggest that a precise geographic delineation of Toronto is extremely difficult. Political borders, statistical definitions, and provincial government delineations provide only a few of the many alternatives which can be used for defining Toronto's boundaries.

Political boundaries Probably the simplest definitions of Toronto are based on political boundaries. For example, the City of Toronto is a municipality covering 97.15 square km with a 1991 population of 635,395. As early as the 1950s, however, the City of Toronto recognized the substantial interaction it had with neighbouring municipalities, such as Etobicoke, Scarborough and North York. Consequently, in 1953, the provincial government consolidated the City of Toronto and 12 other nearby municipalities into a single government entity, now commonly known as Metropolitan Toronto (Metro).

Substantial growth in and around Metro, however, has extended Toronto's social and economic influence well beyond these limits. In an attempt to specify these limits, Statistics Canada's definition of the Toronto CMA expands the range of Toronto to include nearby towns and cities which are home to thousands of workers commuting daily to Metropolitan Toronto.

Toronto as a statistical unit Statistics Canada formally introduced the concept of a census metropolitan area (CMA) as "an expanding social and economic entity" in 1941. Since then, many changes have occurred in the definition of a CMA. For example, commuting characteristics have formed part of the CMA concept since 1976.

The CMA is currently defined as a very large urban area (urbanized core) of at least 100,000 population (based on the previous census), together with adjacent urban and rural areas that have a high degree of economic and social integration with that urban area. The CMA comprises municipalities completely or partially inside the urbanized core. Outlying municipalities are also included if at least 50% of the employed labour force residing in the municipality works in the urbanized core or if at least 25% of the employed labour force working in the municipality lives in the urbanized core.

Changes in the CMA definition have expanded the land area of the Toronto CMA considerably. In 1966, the Toronto CMA consisted of 2,071 square km. Over the next 10 years, changes to the CMA concept resulted in an 81% increase in area (to 3,743 square km by 1976). The Toronto CMA now covers an area of 5,584 square km, due to further definitional changes in 1986 and 1991. These land area changes add another dimension to comparing population statistics over time.

Population growth in the Toronto CMA, as in any CMA, is attributable not only to natural increase and net migration, but also to expanding boundaries. One approach for comparing population changes would be to adopt an identical boundary, for example, that of Metro Toronto. However, the changing CMA definition likely reflects more accurately the changing limits of Toronto.

Population up 80% since 1966 In 1991, 3.89 million people lived in the Toronto CMA, up about 80% from 1966. Over the same period, residents of the Toronto CMA represented an increasing share of Canada's population. By 1991, the proportion had risen to 14%, from 11% in 1966. Also, the Toronto CMA population accounted for a greater proportion of Ontario residents in 1991 (39%) than in 1966 (31%).

The population of the Toronto CMA is still increasing rapidly. Toronto was Canada's fourth fastest growing CMA between 1986 and 1991 (behind Oshawa, Vancouver and Kitchener), with a population increase of 13%. In addition, Toronto continues to be the largest CMA, with about three-quarters of a million more people than the next largest CMA, Montreal. Since 1976, when the population of Toronto first surpassed that of Montreal, the gap between the numbers of people in these two CMAs has grown.

Compared to large American metropolitan areas (as defined by the U.S. Census), the Toronto CMA ranked tenth in total population in 1991. That year, it was larger than Houston, Miami and Atlanta, but trailed New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, San Francisco, Philadelphia, Detroit, Boston, Washington and Dallas, respectively.

The Toronto CMA includes several large urban areas. Eleven of the 28 geographic areas (including cities, towns and boroughs) in the Toronto CMA had populations of over 100,000 in 1991. These areas comprised 86% of the Toronto CMA total population. The cities of North York, Scarborough and Toronto, each with a population over one-half million in 1991, were home to 44% of the CMA's residents.

Five of the six fastest growing Canadian cities between 1986 and 1991 were within the Toronto CMA. Vaughan's population increased the fastest (71%) from 1986 to 1991. Markham was the third fastest growing, increasing 34%, followed by Oakville (32%), Brampton (24%) and Mississauga (24%). In addition, no cities in the Toronto CMA were among the top 50 cities in Canada experiencing declining populations.

Toronto as a planning area CMAs may differ from metropolitan areas designated by local authorities for planning or other purposes. In 1988, the Ontario provincial government, recognizing the influence of Metro Toronto on neighbouring municipalities, established the Office for the Greater Toronto Area (OGTA) as part of the Ministry of Environment. The initial task of the OGTA was to determine what constitutes the Greater Toronto Area (GTA). Discussions with area municipalities, government and industry groups resulted in a consensus-based definition of the GTA.

The GTA encompasses 30 area municipalities within the 5 regional municipalities of Metro Toronto, Halton, Peel, York and Durham. It constitutes much of the same area as the 1991 Toronto CMA, but includes additional cities such as Oshawa, Whitby and Burlington. There is, however, a small area (Orangeville, parts of Simcoe County) included in the 1991 Toronto CMA that is not part of the GTA. In 1991, the population of the GTA (4.24 million) was 9% greater than that of the Toronto CMA.

The Greater Toronto Bioregion A Toronto area similar but slightly smaller

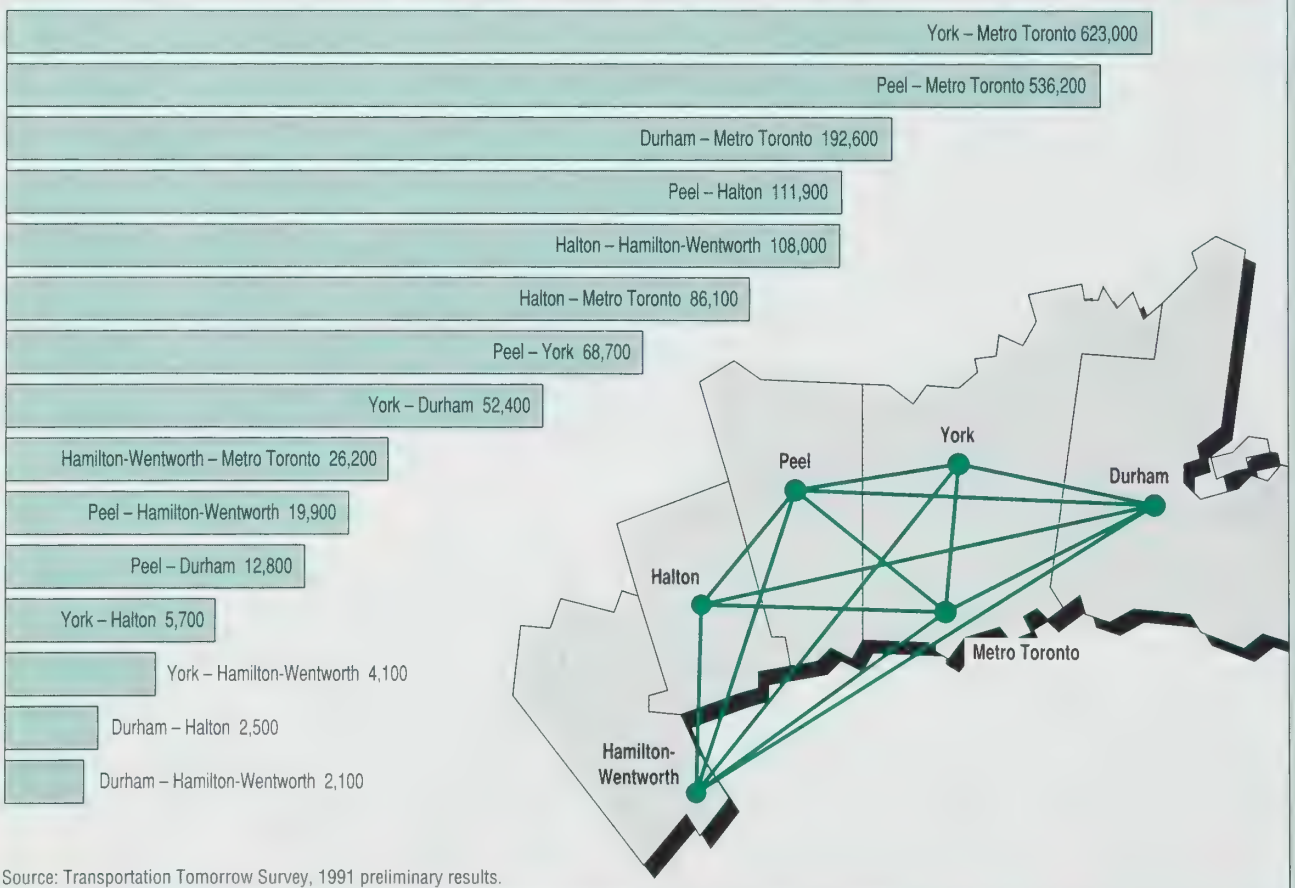
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Population and employment projections in the GTA The main priority of the Office of the Greater Toronto Area is to develop a growth strategy for the Greater Toronto Area (GTA) in conjunction with various political bodies, community groups and citizens. Numerous working groups have been formed to study specific policy areas ranging from urban form, environmental protection, infrastructure requirements and economic growth. The policy recommendations of these working groups will form the basis of a strategic action plan prepared by provincial and municipal representatives, to be gradually implemented starting in 1993.

According to population projections by Clayton Research Associates, 6.5 million people will be living in the GTA by 2031. Metro Toronto's share of the total GTA population, however, is expected to decline significantly, to 39% in 2031 from 59% in 1986. In absolute measures, regional municipalities experiencing the most population growth from 1986 to 2031 are predicted to be York, with an increase of 773,000 (220%) and Peel, with a population increase of 714,000 (121%). Age profile projections for the GTA are similar to projected national trends. For example, children will represent a decreasing share of the population. In contrast, the proportion of people aged 65 and over will increase to nearly one-in-four (23%) residents of the GTA by 2031. One implication of the population growth in the GTA is the provision of urban services, estimated to cost $102 billion by 2021, up 29% from 1986.

Currently, about 45% of Canadian corporations have their head offices in the GTA. Employment projections by Hemson Consulting Limited indicate that absolute job growth from 1986 to 2031 will be led by Metro Toronto, with an increase of 389,000 jobs. The projections indicate that employment in Metro Toronto will account for a decreasing share of total employment in the GTA. By 2031, employment in Metro Toronto will make up 49% of total employment in the GTA, down from 65% in 1986. Employment in the York regional municipality will grow the fastest, increasing 213% between 1986 and 2031.

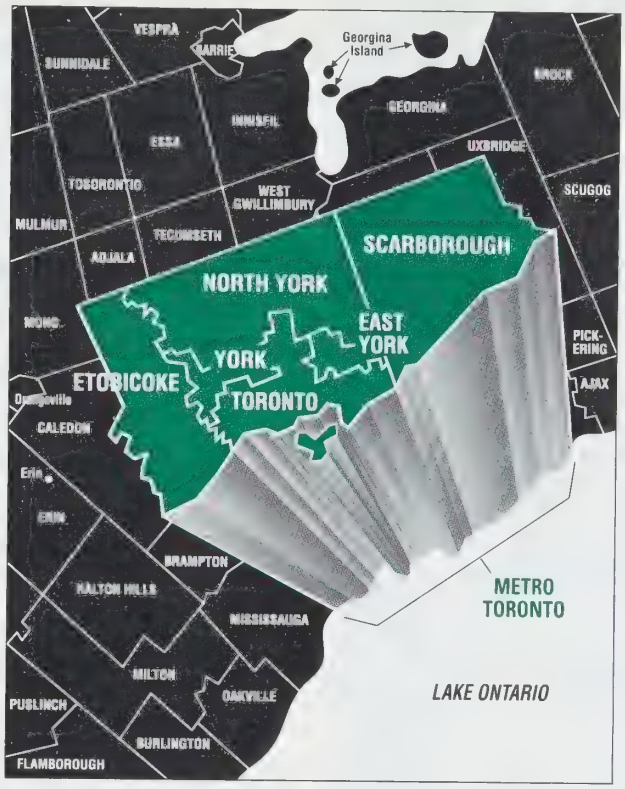
Daily inter-regional total person trips, 1991



Source: Transportation Tomorrow Survey, 1991 preliminary results.

than the GTA has been called the Greater Toronto Bioregion (GTB) by the Royal Commission on the Future of the Toronto Waterfront. The GTB is the area bounded by the Niagara Escarpment in the west, the Oak Ridges Moraine in the north and east, and Lake Ontario in the south. The Commission, a joint federal-provincial effort, was appointed in 1988 to study issues affecting the development of the Toronto Waterfront. The Commission suggested that the Greater Toronto Area Waterfront, extending along Lake Ontario from Burlington to Newcastle, could not be studied in isolation from a larger biological region (GTB) of which it is part.

The Commission held public hearings with government and community interest groups across the Greater Toronto Bioregion. These consultations contributed to the Commission's support of an ecosystem approach, whereby environmental, economic and social values are all considered in the decision-making and planning process.



Traffic flows In 1991, the Ontario Ministry of Transport, in conjunction with several regional municipalities and transport industry groups, conducted the Transportation Tomorrow Survey (TTS). Its purpose was to supply traffic information for all types of transportation, within Metropolitan Toronto and its neighbouring regional municipalities: Peel, Halton, York, Durham and Hamilton-Wentworth. Trip information for a 24-hour period was gathered for all people aged 6 years or older in each of the surveyed households. A trip was defined as a single purpose, one-way movement between two sites. These daily origin-destination (O-D) data can be used to illustrate the complexities of travel behaviour in an urbanized region or to determine yet another boundary for the Toronto area. Several interpretations, however, are possible.

Origin-destination data from the survey indicate that the majority of all traffic over a 24-hour period is confined entirely within each of the six regional municipalities of the study area. According to the survey, 81% of daily personal travel takes place within regional boundaries. There is, however, considerable variability in the self-containment rates of traffic, ranging from 91% for Hamilton-Wentworth to 64% for the York region. Using only this measure of traffic flows would indicate a city structure of Toronto resembling Metro Toronto, with each of the surrounding municipalities representing relatively independent regions.

Another way of interpreting the travel data, and thus of perceiving the Toronto area, is to focus on the daily traffic entering Metro from the surrounding municipalities. Of the total daily traffic destined for Metro Toronto from neighbouring regional municipalities, 43% of the trips originate from York, followed by Peel with 39%. There are also significant flows to Metro from Durham and Halton. In contrast, the Hamilton-Wentworth region constitutes less than 2% of regional traffic flows destined for Metro. This perspective supports the GTA definition, which excludes the Hamilton-Wentworth municipality.

If traffic flows among all the regional municipalities are considered, travel data from the TTS can provide an even wider Toronto area definition. Daily traffic flows between Halton and Hamilton-Wentworth are substantial. In 1991, there were more daily traffic flows between Hamilton-Wentworth and Halton (108,000) than between Metro Toronto and Halton (86,100). By considering the interaction between Hamilton-Wentworth and Halton, Toronto could be defined as a transportation network, extending from Hamilton-Wentworth in the west to Durham in the east.

Conclusion Different interpretations of travel survey data, along with the formulations by the OGTA, Statistics Canada and satellite imagery illustrate the arbitrariness of defining the boundaries for the Toronto area. The range of what is considered to be Toronto is contingent upon the method and criteria utilized: administrative, political, statistical and topographic approaches are among the several alternatives.

For further information, see:

1. *Working Paper CMA/CA Program: A Review*, 1941-81, No. 8-GE084 by Grafton Ross
2. *GTA 2021 – The Challenge of Our Future*, A Working Document (OGTA, 1992)
3. *Royal Commission on the Future of the Toronto Waterfront (Canada)*, Watershed: Interim Report (Ottawa, 1990)
4. *Toronto: An Urban Study* by Richard P. Baine and A. Lynn McMurray (Irwin Publishing, third ed., 1984)
5. *The Transportation Tomorrow Survey: An Overview of Travel Characteristics in the Greater Toronto Area* (Ontario Ministry of Transport, 1988)

- Remote sensing involves the observation and measurement of the environment via earth observation satellites. The satellite image on page 22 shows not only the Toronto area, but also Montreal and parts of the east coast of Canada and the U.S.A. The image was produced from USAF DMSP (Defense Meteorological Satellite Program) film transparencies archived at the University of Colorado, CIRES/National Snow and Ice Data Center, Campus Box 449, Boulder, CO U.S.A. 80309.

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75 Years of Social Reporting

by Cynthia Silver

75 Years of Excellence / Ans d'excellence

This year marks the 75th anniversary of Statistics Canada, Canada's national statistical agency. Known as the Dominion Bureau of Statistics (DBS) until 1971, Statistics Canada was officially formed on May 24, 1918. That year, the population of Canada was estimated at 8.1 million, less than one-third the size of the population estimate of 27.6 million in January 1993. But much more than the size of the Canadian population has changed. The social and economic issues of concern to Canadians have multiplied and evolved with each successive generation, providing a formidable challenge to the agency whose role was to furnish the information needed to guide a young nation's development.

Then, as now, the agency was responsible for producing both economic and social statistics. In 1918, DBS divided its responsibilities for reporting on the Canadian economy into the following areas: Agriculture, the Industrial Census, Foreign Trade, Transportation and Communication, Internal Trade and Finance. Three additional divisions dealt with social information: Demography, Administration of Justice and Education. Today, social reporting at Statistics Canada reflects not only the evolution of these still-important areas, but a continually developing program of information and analysis. This program addresses the entire spectrum of current and emerging social issues – health, employment and unemployment, income, culture, family structures, housing, living conditions and much more.



The census has recorded Canada's social history for over a century The main source of social information from 1871 through to the early 1900s was the census. Prior to 1918, the census of the Dominion of Canada had been the responsibility of the "Census and Statistics Office." The challenge to the newly formed DBS was to complete its organization "during the year 1919-1920 so that the Census of 1921 may proceed from a sound basis." [1]

The 1921 Census counted 8.8 million people. About half of them lived in rural areas. Households were much larger than they are today, averaging 4.6 people, compared with the 1991 Census count of 2.7.

In 1921, 12% of the Canadian population was born in the British Isles, while 0.4% was born in China. In 1991, 2.6% of the population was born in the United Kingdom and 1.1% in the Peoples Republic of China and Hong Kong.

Births, deaths and marriages Administrative records, in the form of vital statistics, were also an important source of social information. The collection of vital statistics began in Canada with the registration by the ecclesiastical authorities of baptisms, marriages and burials. In 1918, a procedure was set up where DBS supplied the standard registration forms for births, deaths and marriages and the provinces forwarded transcripts of the completed forms. By 1926, DBS vital statistics information covered all of the provinces within Confederation. When Newfoundland (in 1949) and the Territories (in 1950) joined Confederation, they also became party to the vital statistics agreement.

The birth rate following the First World War was high. In 1921, it was 29 births per 1,000 population. It dipped to only 20 births per 1,000 population in 1937, but peaked again during the baby boom that followed the Second World War. That peak, in 1954, was 28 births per 1,000. The rate in 1990, in contrast, was only 15 births per 1,000.

In 1926, about 18% of births took place in hospitals. By 1950, three-quarters were hospital births, and today, almost all births take place in hospitals.

Between 1926 and 1990, infant mortality dropped from 102 deaths per 1,000 live births to a rate of less than 7.

The death rate in 1926 was 11 per 1,000 population in Canada. By 1990, it had fallen to 7 deaths per 1,000.

In 1931, life expectancy at birth was calculated at 62 years for women and 60 years for men. By 1986, life expectancy had risen considerably for both men and women, but the spread between the genders had also increased. Women born in Canada can expect to live almost 80 years, while men can expect to live 73 years.

Almost 9% of men who married in 1926 had been widowers. That year, 6% of brides had been widows. In 1926, only 1% of newly married men and women had been divorced. Sixty years later, in 1990, only 3% of both men and women who married in that year were widowed, while divorced individuals accounted for 21% of the men and 20% of the women.

Tracking diseases The need for continuing vigilance over health issues is illustrated by the trends in tuberculosis.

Tuberculosis death rates fell continuously between 1921 and 1990. The impact of the use of streptomycin and other TB antibiotics introduced in the late 1940s is reflected in very steep falls in rates. In 1945, there were 47 deaths per 100,000 population, in 1950, the rate was 27. In recent years, the death rate from tuberculosis has reached a plateau at a rate of less than 1 per 100,000 population.

[1] Dominion Bureau of Statistics, **Annual Report**, 1918-1919.



Tuberculosis has become an uncommon disease in Canada. Fewer than 2,000 new cases are diagnosed annually. However, the rapid decrease in TB observed in the 1960s and 1970s gave way to slower declines in the early 1980s. There have been no further declines in most recent years (1988-1990). Most cases occur among high risk groups such as the urban poor, recent immigrants from high prevalence countries and Aboriginal Canadians.[2]

For the high risk populations identified, the fight against tuberculosis continues. While tuberculosis is no longer feared by most of the population, deaths from cardiovascular disease and cancer are of foremost concern.

A nation of immigrants Canada has often been described as a nation of immigrants.

- Canada experienced its largest wave of immigrants in 1913 (401,000 people, equivalent to 5% of the population that year). By the end of the First World War in 1918, immigration fell to only 42,000. Immigration picked up again through the 1920s, but dropped considerably during the Great Depression and even further during the Second World War. Annual numbers during the last 4 decades have generally ranged between one and two hundred thousand. The lowest number recorded during this period was 72,000 in 1961. In 1991, 231,000 people immigrated to Canada, less than 1% of the population.

Justice A product of the court system, criminal statistics have been available since 1876. But a historical review of crime in Canada is difficult. Laws, law enforcement and social mores have changed and crime reporting has changed. In an effort to increase consistency, a Unified Crime Reporting Survey was put into place in 1962. The demand for information on crime and the administration of justice continues to grow. This has led to the recent introduction of a more comprehensive Crime Reporting Survey and other improvements to the information available to legislators, law enforcement agents and the public.

Education Education statistics have been collected since 1866. However, it was during the 1960s, a period of unprecedented expansion and re-organisation of Canadian education, that a demand for improved statistics emerged. The demand is even greater today, as education policies and programs throughout the nation undergo intensive review and evolution.

- Today, it is taken for granted that children go to school. However, back in 1867, only 44% of those aged 5-24 were enrolled at school. This proportion rose moderately through the early years of this century, reaching 58% by 1921. Enrolment levels fluctuated during the depression years and into the period of the Second World War, but by the late 1970s, 70% of all persons in this age group attended school.
- Women's presence in universities is commonplace today. Women represented 62% of university enrolment in 1991-92. In 1920, however, women were very much in the minority, accounting for only 16% of full-time enrolment.

Canadians at work In 1946, responding to the need for information to support post-war labour market adjustments, DBS inaugurated the Labour Force Survey, a quarterly sample survey designed to measure employment and unemployment. Since 1953, the survey has been conducted on a monthly basis, providing key information on current labour market conditions and trends.

- In 1921, 53% of the population aged 14 years and over was employed. One-third was employed in agriculture. In 1991, 60% of those aged 15 and over were employed, but less than 4% in agriculture.
- Increasing female participation in the labour force has been one of the most important social trends in recent decades. In 1921, only one-in-five women 14 years and over was in the labour force. By 1991, 58% of women aged 15 and over were in the labour force.

The Labour Force Survey has also served as a vehicle for hundreds of special surveys. These include regular and occasional surveys covering topics such as literacy, child care, travel, health and shelter costs, to name a few.

The Canadian consumer Statistics Canada has been tracking the material well-being of Canadians for many years in terms of their personal incomes and spending power. While the census has collected information on the wages of Canadians for many decades, it did not begin collecting information on the total incomes of individuals and families until 1961. The Survey of Consumer Finances, beginning in 1951, was the first Statistics Canada survey to collect comprehensive information on all sources of income. Conducted in conjunction with the Labour Force Survey, this sample survey responded to the growing need for timely information on changes in the level and distribution of incomes throughout the country.

- In 1951, the average income of people who did not live on a farm was $2,086. This was the equivalent to $12,494 in constant 1991 dollars. In 1991, the average income of both farm and non-farm individuals was $24,038.
- In 1951, the average family income was $3,535 (equivalent to $21,172 in 1991 dollars). Since then, family incomes in constant 1991 dollars have increased 250% to $53,131 in 1991. The steady increase in women's participation in the labour force was an important factor in this growth.

Inflation is nothing new to the consumer. Except during the 1930s Great Depression, the cost of a typical "basket of goods and services" has moved up steadily.

- In 1991, it took $9.28 to equal the buying power of $1.00 in 1918.

It was not until 1937 that DBS initiated its own survey to determine the content of the "basket" of consumer goods and services used to monitor price changes. That year, the Survey of Family Expenditures targeted a specific type of average urban wage-earning family composed of two parents and children. The



survey was later expanded to include the expenditures of people in all types of households.

In 1937-38, food made a big dent in the family budget (28.8%), while personal taxes made up only 0.2% of family expenditures. In 1986, food accounted for only 14.4% of the expenditures of comparable families, while personal taxes had risen to 20.6%.[3]

Shedding light on emerging social trends In 1985, Statistics Canada introduced the General Social Survey (GSS), a program designed to focus on both current and evolving social issues and concerns. Over a five-year cycle, the GSS provides systematic and comprehensive information on the evolution of important social trends and their impact on the lives of Canadians. For example, the first and sixth cycle of the survey focused on the health of Canadians and lifestyle issues related to persons aged 55 and over. Subsequent cycles covered topics such as time use, personal risk, trends in work and education and family structures.

The percentage of men who were regular smokers dropped sharply from 54% in 1966 to 26% in 1991. The percentage of women who smoked daily dipped only slightly from 28% to 26% over the 25-year period.

Men are more likely than women to expend energy in leisure pursuits. In 1985, 31% of men and 23% of women were physically active. This increased to 39% of men and 26% of women in 1991.

What's in store tomorrow? These anecdotes describing a few of the changes measured over the years don't touch on all of the social data series that Statistics Canada has developed. Nor do they highlight important new initiatives currently under development in the areas of health, education, income and labour market participation. Over the past 75 years, changes in social conditions, developments in information science, as well as increases in the demand for information have been reflected in the growth and development of Statistics Canada's information programs. New challenges undoubtedly will continue to shape them over the next 75.

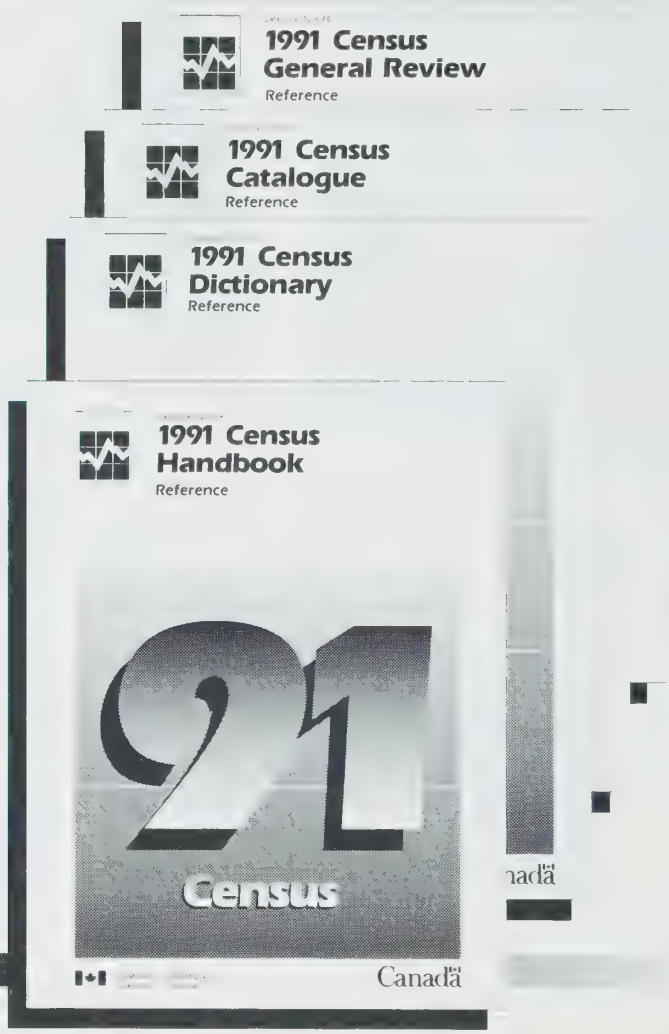
[2] A. Brancker, D.A. Enarson, S. Grzybowski, E.S. Hershfield, C.W.L. Jeanes, "**A Statistical Chronicle of Tuberculosis in Canada: Part II. Risk Today and Control**", Health Reports (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-003) 1992, Vol.4, No.3.

[3] H. Champion, "Fifty years ago: Canada's first Family Expenditure Survey," unpublished, Statistics Canada, 1988.

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SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,240.3	26,610.4	27,004.4 PD	27,402.2 PR
Annual growth (%)	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5 PD	1.5 PR
Immigration[1]	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,527	221,798	236,723 R
Emigration[1]	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	39,650	39,201	42,503 PR
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	15.3	14.9	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.1	6.4	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	2.9	2.8	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	990	915	872	789	776	841	1,046	1,132
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572	12,340	12,240
– goods sector (000s)	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626	3,423	3,307
– service sector (000s)	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946	8,917	8,933
Total unemployment (000s)	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109	1,417	1,556
Unemployment rate (%)	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.3	11.3
Part-time employment (%)	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4	16.4	16.8
Women's participation rate (%)	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4	58.2	57.6
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	34.1	34.7	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	46,069	46,742	*
% of families with low income (1986 Base)	14.3	13.6	13.1	12.2	11.1	12.1	13.1	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	67.6	69.6	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,074.4	5,141.0	5,221.1 P	5,287.7 e
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.9	832.3	856.5	890.5 P	921.3 e
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,672	2,947	3,140 P
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.5	*	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease – men	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	37.3	*	*
– women	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	41.2	*	*
% of deaths due to cancer – men	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	27.8	*	*
– women	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	26.8	*	*
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	*	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	749	808	856	898	948	1,013	1,099	*
– property	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,844	6,395	*
– homicide	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	3.0	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1990 $000,000)	155,990.6	157,737.2	160,670.7	164,293.2	170,125.0	175,640.0	*	*
– as a % of total expenditures	55.8	56.4	56.1	56.2	56.2	56.7	*	*
– as a % of GDP	26.2	26.1	25.5	24.7	25.0	26.3	*	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	*
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) – annual % change	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+5.0	+2.3	-0.5	-1.7	+0.9
Annual inflation rate (%)	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5
Urban housing starts	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126

– Not available * Not yet available P Preliminary data e Estimate m Figures as of March
PD Final postcensal estimates (1987-1992 population estimates are still based on 1986 census counts)
PR Updated postcensal estimates R Updated data
[1]For year ending May 31st
[2]Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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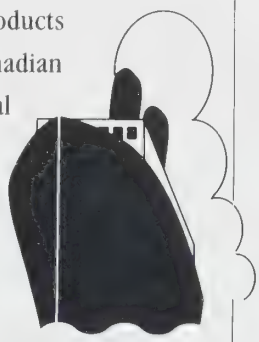
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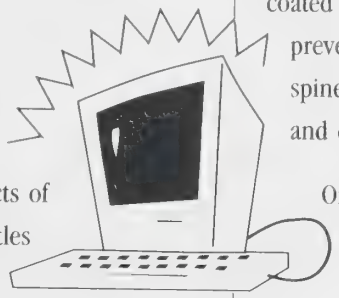
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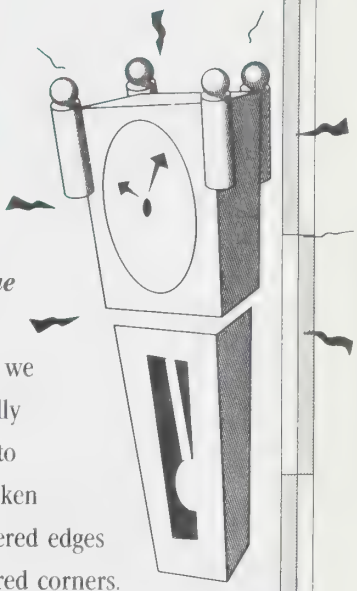


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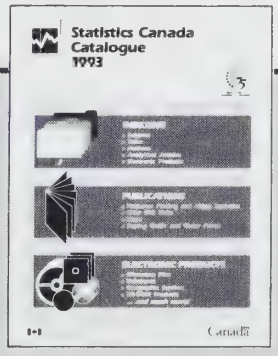


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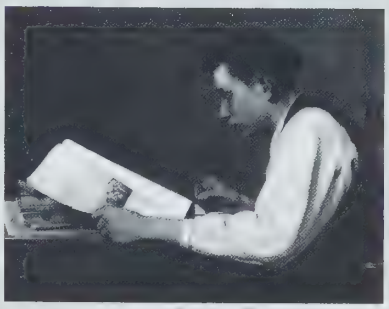
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About the artist:

Born at St. Hilaire, Quebec, **Ozias Leduc** (1864-1955) acquired much of his artistic training through observation and self-teaching. In his early twenties, he painted beautiful still life studies bathed in warm candle light or light from a distant window. Later in his career, his work was influenced by French impressionists but translated into his own unique style. O. Leduc is well known for his religious murals and paintings.



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SCHOOL LEAVERS

by Sid Gilbert and Bruce Orok



Many Canadians think of high school dropouts as having been unmotivated, low-achieving students from disadvantaged backgrounds who used drugs and worked long hours at a job instead of studying. After leaving school, they are thought to be unemployed and living on social assistance, with no occupational, educational or training plans. According to Statistics Canada's School Leavers Survey, high school leavers did not quite fit this stereotypical image.

Many came from two-parent families in which both parents were employed. In addition, many were doing well at school and either did not have a job or were working only moderate hours. After quitting school, leavers tended to be employed and to work long weekly hours with most planning to take further education or training.

The term "dropout" carries a derogatory connotation associated with individual failure, but often is still used to describe all people who have not completed high school, regardless of the reasons for their leaving. The term "school leaver", however, has a more neutral designation and is used throughout this article.

School leaver rates According to the School Leavers Survey, 18% of 20-year-olds in 1991 were dropouts or leavers, that is, they were not attending school and had not graduated with a diploma or certificate. Almost two-thirds (62%) of leavers had a Grade 10 education or less, while 32% had completed no more than Grade 9. More than one-third were aged 16 or younger when they left school: 21% were age 16 and 17% were aged 14-15.

Leaving school tended to be more common in the Atlantic provinces than in the Western provinces. Provincial education systems vary considerably which may have had some bearing on this pattern. In 1991, 25% of 20-year-olds who studied in Prince Edward Island and 24% of those in Newfoundland were school leavers. In contrast, 14% of 20-year-olds who studied in Alberta reported having quit school, while the leaver rate in Saskatchewan and British Columbia was 16%. About one-in-five 20-year-olds had left school in Nova Scotia (22%), Quebec (22%), New Brunswick (20%) and Manitoba (19%). The school leaver rate in Ontario was 17%.

Gender differences in school leaver rates decrease from east to west Young men age 20 were more likely than women that age to have left school before receiving a diploma or certificate (22% versus 14%). While school leaver rates were higher for men than for women in most provinces, differences between the proportions were smaller in the four Western provinces than elsewhere in Canada. In Saskatchewan, for example, an equal proportion (16%)* of men and women age 20 were school leavers. The largest gap in the west – 4 percentage points – was in Alberta (16%* for men and 12%* for women). In contrast, the difference between male and female leaver rates went as high as 16 percentage points: in Prince Edward Island, 33% of men age 20, compared with 17% of women that age, had not completed high school.

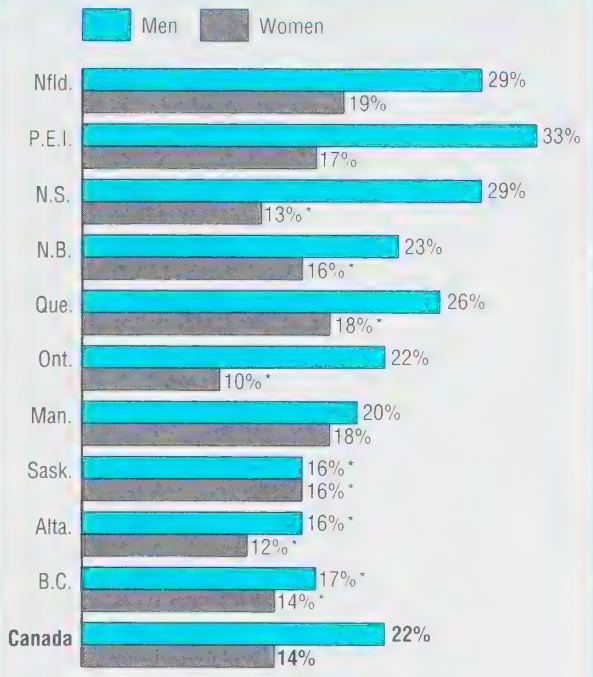
Reasons for leaving differ for men and women Among male leavers aged 18-20,[1] the two most important reasons for leaving were that they preferred work to school (28%)* and boredom (19%)*. Other important reasons cited by young men included having to work for financial reasons (9%)* and problems with teachers (8%)*.

Female leavers aged 18-20 cited boredom (22%)* and problems with school work (13%)* as the top two reasons for leaving school. Another 10%* of female school leavers preferred work to

[1] To allow detailed analysis, data in this and subsequent sections are for people aged 18-20.

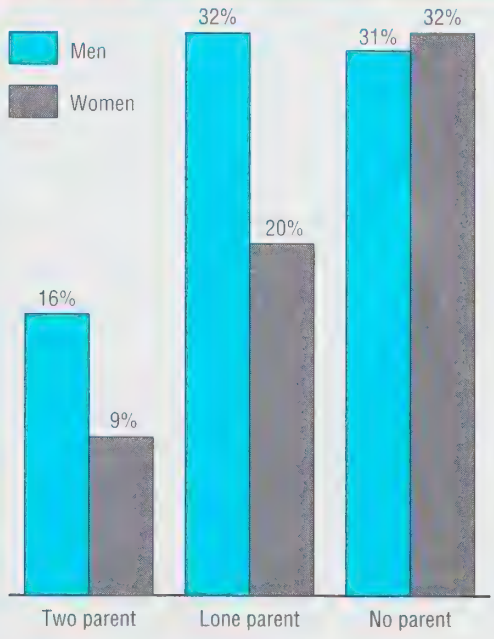
* High sampling variability is associated with these estimates, and therefore, they should be used with caution.

Proportion of 20-year-olds who were school leavers, by province and gender CST



* High sampling variability.
Source: Statistics Canada, School Leavers Survey, 1991.

Proportion of 18-20-year-olds who were school leavers, by family structure and gender CST



Source: Statistics Canada, School Leavers Survey, 1991.

school and 9%* reported pregnancy/marriage as the most important reason for leaving.

Family background Most school leavers (61%) and graduates (83%) came from two-parent families. A greater proportion of leavers than graduates, however, lived with one or no parent during their last year in school. In 1991, 25% of leavers lived with a lone parent and 13% with no parent. The proportions among graduates were 12% and 5%, respectively.

Young men aged 18-20 living with at least one of their parents were more likely than their female counterparts to have left school. In 1991 for example, 32% of young men from lone-parent families were school leavers, compared with 20% of young women. In contrast, equal proportions (just under one-third) of young men and women not living with a parent were school leavers. The relatively high percentage of leavers among young women living without their parents may be related to the presence of a child. In 1991, 27% of female school leavers aged 18-20 had dependent children.

The proportion of school leavers in lone-parent families or living without a parent was much higher than the proportion in two-parent families. This was likely related to the high incidence of low incomes experienced by lone-parent families and young people living alone. Children living in poverty often suffer from malnutrition and other health problems, live in inadequate housing and experience discrimination. As a result, they may not have the same opportunities to succeed in school as those who are financially better off.

Parents' education and employment status School leavers were more likely than high school graduates to have at least one parent with a low level of educational attainment. In 1991, 45% of leavers aged 18-20 had a parent who had not obtained a high school certificate or diploma, compared with 32% of graduates. Still, over one-quarter (28%) of school leavers had parents with medium or high levels of education.[2]

Given these differences in educational attainment, it is not surprising that leavers were more likely than graduates to have parents in blue-collar occupations (primary industries, processing, etc.). In 1991, 55% of leavers from two-parent families had fathers in such jobs, compared with 40% of graduates. In contrast, only 11% of leavers had fathers with managerial, professional or technical jobs, compared with 30% of graduates.

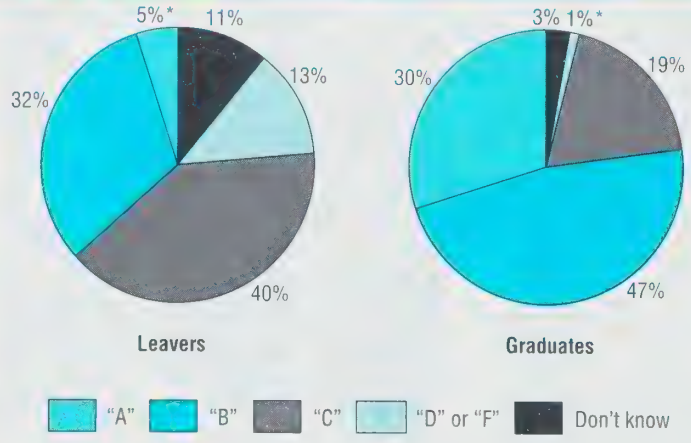
School leavers from two-parent families were twice as likely as graduates to have a father who was not working (14% compared with 7%). Similarly, 30% of leavers and 24% of graduates in two-parent families had mothers who were not working. Leavers (18%) and graduates (19%) from lone-parent families, however, were equally likely to have a parent without a job.

Nonetheless, substantial proportions of leavers in two-parent families had both parents working in "white-collar" occupations. In 1991, 25% of fathers and 54% of mothers were in clerical, sales, service, managerial, professional or technical jobs.

Parental attitudes Almost all parents (93%) considered high school completion to be very important regardless of their own educational background. This attitude about the value of education seemed to influence their children's behaviour. For example, in 1991 only 14% of children of parents who valued education reported leaving school. In contrast, for the small minority of parents who did not think high school completion was

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Grade average of 18-20-year-old high school leavers and graduates[1]



[1] During last year of school.
* High sampling variability.
Source: Statistics Canada, School Leavers Survey, 1991.

School Leavers Survey

Employment and Immigration Canada commissioned Statistics Canada to conduct the School Leavers Survey to estimate the extent of the problem and the circumstances associated with dropping out of school. A sample of 9,460 18-20-year-olds was interviewed using a computer assisted telephone interview, administered from April to June, 1991. For more information on the results of the survey, contact Doug Higgins, Projections and Analysis Section, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6, Telephone (613) 951-5870.

important, 49% of their children had left school without graduating.

Leavers' school experiences In 1991, 41% of leavers aged 18-20 said that they did not enjoy school, compared with 10% of graduates. A higher percentage of leavers than graduates were dissatisfied with both the variety of courses (25% versus 19%) and their usefulness (29% versus 20%). About 75% of leavers said that they skipped classes in their final year at school, compared with 59% of graduates. Leavers were much more likely than graduates to report that they did not get along with their teachers (15% versus 2%). Also, more leavers (14%) than graduates (5%) said that they did not "fit in" at school.

While there were distinct differences between leavers and graduates concerning their school experience and reactions to it, most leavers enjoyed school, were not dissatisfied with their courses, got along with their teachers and felt that they did fit in at school.

Leavers' academic performance School leavers were more likely than graduates to have experienced failure in elementary school. Among young men aged 18-20, 41% reported failing a grade in elementary school, compared with 11% of graduates. Similarly, 27% of female leavers, compared with 5% of graduates, experienced early failure.

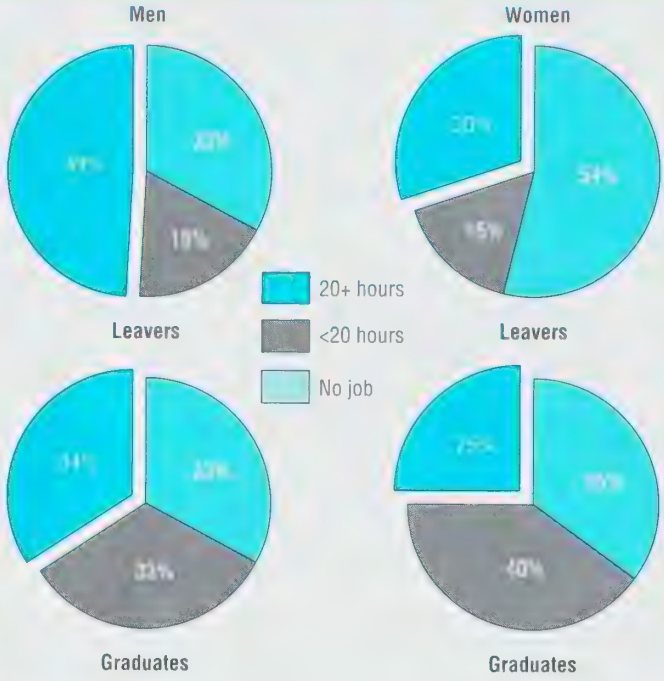
More than one-half of leavers aged 18-20 in 1991 had grade averages of "C" or lower before leaving school: 40% had a "C" average and 13%, a "D" or "F" average. In contrast, 20% of graduates had grade averages of "C" or lower.

Although they did not do as well as graduates, over one-third of leavers had an "A" (5%)* or "B" (32%) average during their last year of school. These leavers quit school despite very good academic performance. Moreover, 49% of leavers who cited personal or family reasons for leaving achieved "A" or "B" averages in their last year in school.



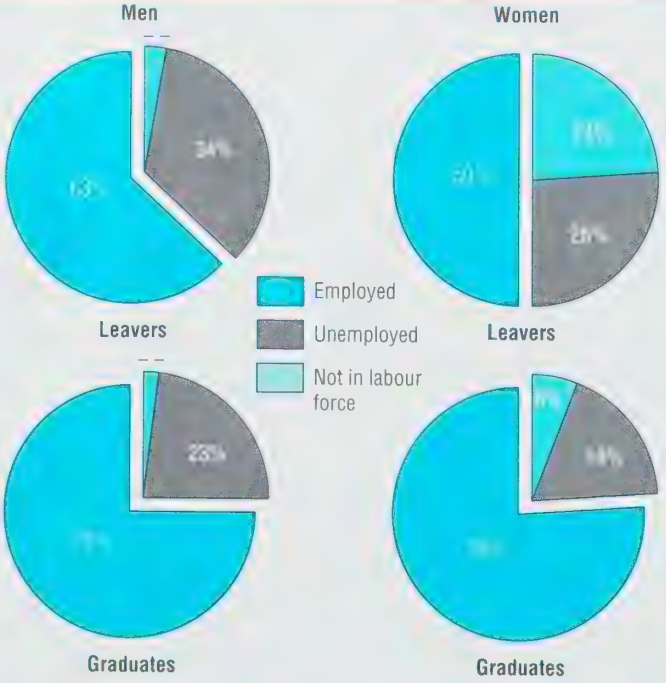
[2] In two-parent families, a "medium" level refers to families where both parents were high school graduates or where one parent had at least some postsecondary education and the other parent had less. In lone-parent families, the parent must have graduated from high school. "High" parental education refers to both parents or the lone parent having at least some postsecondary.

Work experience of 18-20-year-old high school leavers and graduates while still in school, by gender



Source: Statistics Canada, School Leavers Survey, 1991.

Labour force status[1] of 18-20-year-old high school leavers and graduates, by gender



[1] April-June 1991.
* High sampling variability.
Source: Statistics Canada, School Leavers Survey, 1991.

Working while in school Some controversy exists about the effects of employment during the school year. On the one hand, students who work long hours at jobs unrelated to school work may not have the time, energy or motivation to adequately focus on their studies. On the other hand, exposure to the job market at an early age may give students valuable experience and skills useful for their future working life.

High school graduates were slightly more likely than leavers to work during their last year at school: 66% compared with 59%. Still, most leavers had no job during their last year of school or worked moderate weekly hours at a part-time job. In 1991, 33% of male leavers and 54% of female leavers held no job during the school year. Another 18% of male leavers and 16% of female leavers worked less than 20 hours per week.

School leavers, however, were more likely than graduates to work long hours. In 1991, 49% of male leavers and 30% of female leavers spent 20 or more hours per week at a job, compared with 34% of male and 25% of female graduates.

Lifestyle Most students drank alcohol during their last year of school. The proportion was lower for leavers (67%) than for graduates (75%). Leavers were more likely than graduates to have consumed alcohol on a regular basis: 18% of leavers, compared with 11% of graduates, reported drinking often.

The use of drugs, such as marijuana and hashish and the misuse of prescription drugs, such as tranquilizers, was much less common than alcohol consumption among students. Still, 30% of leavers and 16% of graduates reported the use of such drugs during their last year of school. Most drug use by both groups, however, was experimental, with only 9% of leavers and 1%* of graduates reporting regular use. In addition, few graduates and leavers reported using drugs, such as cocaine, crack, speed or LSD, or sniffing glue or solvents.

School leavers were more likely than graduates to have been in trouble with the law during their last year of school. In 1991, 12% of leavers reported that they had been convicted of a criminal offence, compared with 3% of graduates. These criminal offences excluded parking and

speeding tickets. However, most leavers (88%) had no criminal convictions.

Half regretted leaving school In 1991 almost one-half of school leavers aged 18-20 said that they were not happy with their decision to leave school. Still, 29% (32% of men and 23% of women) were happy with their decision.

The reason most frequently given by those who regretted dropping out of school was that they now recognized the value of an education: 56% of male and 50% of female leavers gave this as a reason. Other reasons for being unhappy with the decision to leave school included wanting or needing a diploma (40% of men and 32% of women) and being unable to get a good job (30% of men and 27% of women).

Employment picture worse for leavers Leavers aged 18-20 were more likely than graduates to be unemployed. During the period April-June 1991, 34% of male leavers, compared with 23% of male graduates, were unemployed. Among women, 26% of leavers and 18% of graduates were unemployed. A much higher proportion of female leavers (24%) than graduates (6%) were not in the labour force. This was likely related to the higher proportion of female leavers who had dependent children.

Nonetheless, most school leavers were employed (63% of men and 50% of women). Male school leavers (62%) were more likely than graduates (47%) to work in blue-collar primary industries and processing occupations. Among both female leavers and graduates, similar proportions (76% and 78%, respectively) worked in clerical, sales and service positions.

Low incomes for leavers and graduates Both school leavers and graduates had very modest incomes, reflecting their low level of education and entry-level jobs. In the 12 months preceding the survey, 51% of both male leavers and graduates had a total personal income (before taxes and deductions) of $10,000 or less. Sixty-one percent of female leavers and 66% of female graduates had total personal incomes in this range.

These low incomes, particularly for men, did not appear to be due to working few



hours. In 1991, 26% of male leavers worked an average of 50 or more hours per week and another 47% worked 40-49 hours per week.

Sources of income varied between leavers and graduates. Leavers, for example, were somewhat more likely than graduates to have received unemployment insurance in the previous year (28% compared with 23%). They were also more likely to have received social assistance or welfare. This was particularly true for female leavers, 30% of whom received welfare, compared with 10% of female graduates. Two-thirds of all leavers and graduates did not receive any financial support from their family, including a spouse or common-law partner.

Most plan to further their education Most school leavers (85%) and graduates (87%) planned to continue their education in the future. In 1991, 46% of male school leavers said that they wanted to obtain skills or training in engineering and applied science technologies and trades. Female leavers were interested in commerce, management and business administration (17%), and fine and applied arts (12%)*.

Twelve percent of male leavers thought they would be working in the construction trades in five years. Female leavers expected to be employed in clerical and related positions (15%) and in service occupations (13%).

Conclusion There are relationships between school leaving and family background, school and work experiences, academic performance and after high school labour force activities. However, school leavers are a relatively more heterogeneous group than traditionally perceived.

In a marketplace dominated by new knowledge, technologies and skills, high educational attainment appears to be a prerequisite for most occupations. The labour market outcome of school leavers may, therefore, be grim. Without a high school diploma, school leavers may lack the basic literacy and numeracy competency needed for additional training or upgrading their education. It is likely that those with low education, training or skill levels, including both leavers and high school graduates without further education or training, will have difficulty obtaining a reasonable job, earning a decent living and coping, in general, with today's society.

Sid Gilbert is a Professor of Sociology at the University of Guelph and **Bruce Orok** is an analyst with *Canadian Social Trends*.

Educational Achievement

An International Comparison

by Jillian Oderkirk

adapted from *Education at a Glance, OECD Indicators*[1]

Educational attainment is a primary determinant of the skills of a nation's labour force, and, in turn, its ability to compete in today's international marketplace. A well-educated labour force can provide a country with the innovation necessary for sustained and expanded economic growth in an increasingly competitive global economy.



Compared to other OECD nations, Canada has the highest or near-highest proportion of university-educated adults, current enrolment in higher education and public expenditure on education. However, a relatively lower proportion of students in Canada graduate with science or engineering degrees. Also, fewer young people in Canada than in many other OECD nations complete a secondary education (high school).

As science and engineering specialists are necessary for increased and improved research and development, maintaining a low ratio of graduates in these fields may limit Canada's ability to compete with other nations. In addition, high rates of high school leavers represent a loss of potential talent and place a burden on Canada's social programs.

The proportion of women with a university degree lags behind that of men in all OECD countries; however, the extent of these gender differences varies. The proportion of women with a non-university higher education, on the other hand, equals or exceeds that of men. Women are also over-represented among adults whose highest level of educational attainment is a secondary education or less. These discrepancies will likely diminish in Canada and most OECD nations, however, because gender differences in current enrolment at all levels are now negligible. In nations where low levels of educational attainment among women persist, women will likely continue to encounter limited employment opportunities.

High educational attainment among Canadian adults In 1989, 15% of adult Canadians aged 25-64 had a university degree. This proportion was higher than that of all other OECD countries, with the exception of the United States (23%). Following Canada and the United States, 13% of adults in Japan and 12% of those in Sweden were university educated. Portugal (4%), Austria (5%), Italy (6%) and the Netherlands (6%) had the lowest proportions of university-educated adults.

Non-university higher education was less common among Canadian adults (15%) than among those in Australia (21%) and New Zealand (22%), where

[1] *Education at a Glance, OECD Indicators*, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, (OECD: Paris, 1992).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

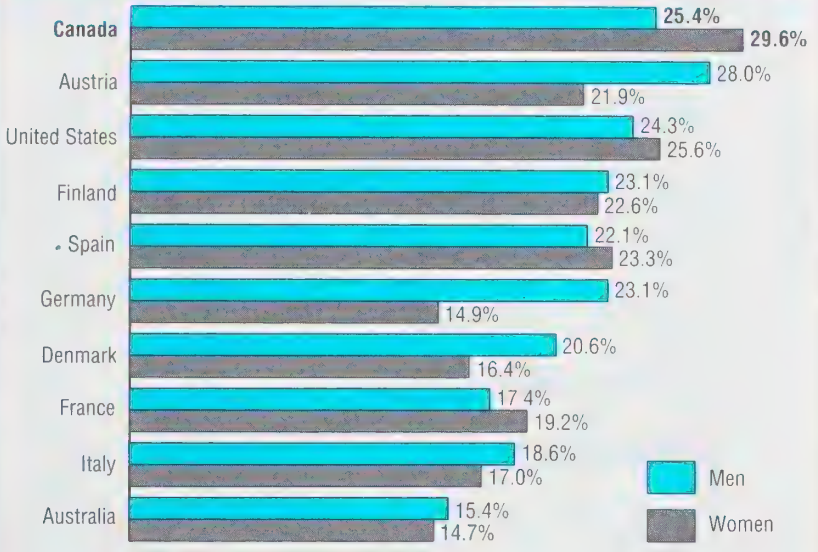
OECD, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, has developed a series of education indicators for member countries which provide comparative information on the organization and operation of their education systems.

Members of the OECD are Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States.

ISCED, the International Standard Classification for Education, developed by UNESCO, was used by the OECD as a means of compiling internationally comparable statistics on education. According to the ISCED, educational programs may be classified as follows:

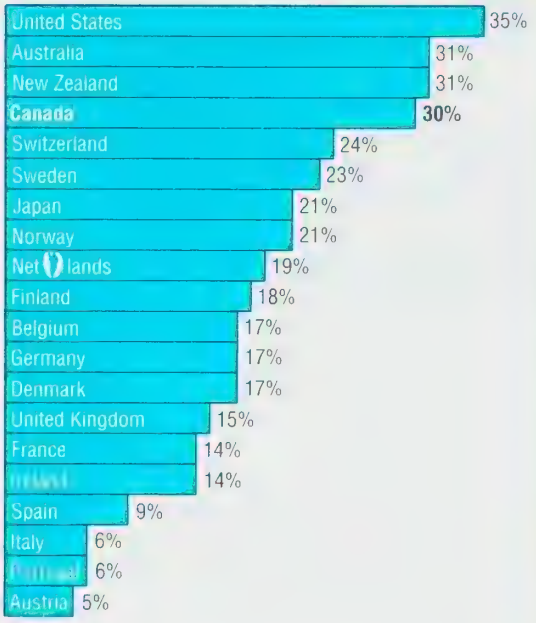
ISCED	Education level	Definition	Canadian equivalent
0	Pre-primary	Preceding the first level	Kindergarten
1	Primary	First level	Grades 1-8
2	Lower secondary	Second level, first stage	Grades 9-10
3	Secondary	Second level, second stage	Grades 11-13
5	Non-university higher education	Leads to an award that is not equivalent to a first university degree	College or CEGEP
6-7	University	Leads to a first university degree or to a postgraduate degree	University

Ten OECD countries with the highest percentage of young adults enrolled[1] in university, 1988



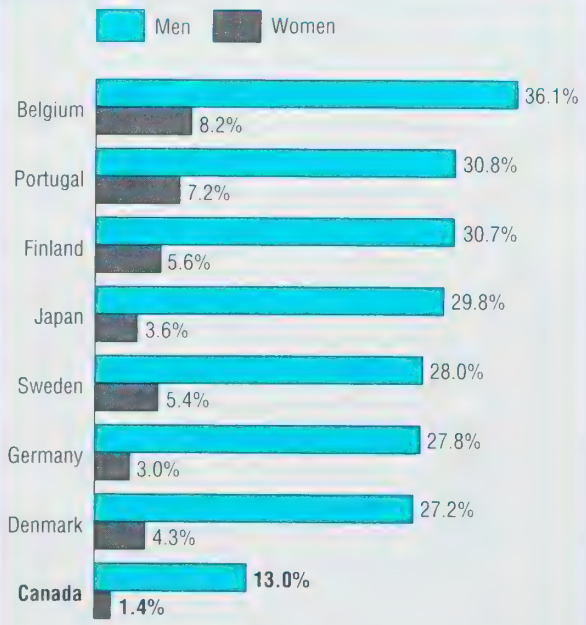
[1] Full-time and part-time enrolment converted to full-time equivalents. Population is those of theoretical university enrolment age (18-25 in Canada).
Source: OECD, 1992.

Percentage of the population aged 25-64 with a postsecondary education,[1] by country, 1989



[1] Both university and non-university higher education.
Source: OECD, 1992.

Seven countries with the largest proportion of university graduates awarded engineering degrees and Canada, by gender, 1988



Source: OECD, 1992.

many programs are offered in a non-university setting. Most OECD countries, however, had smaller proportions of adults with this type of education. Proportions ranged from 2% in Portugal to 12% in the United States and 13% in the Netherlands. The only exception, other than Australia and New Zealand, was Switzerland where the proportion of adults with a non-university education equalled that of Canada.

Most adults in Canada (69%) and other OECD countries, however, had neither a university nor a non-university higher education. Proportions in the United States (64%), Australia (69%), New Zealand (68%) and Switzerland (70%) were similar to that of Canada. However, in Southern Europe (Italy, Portugal and Spain) and Austria, 90% to 95% of adults did not have a postsecondary education. In countries of Central, Western and Northern Europe, with the exception of Austria and Switzerland, 77% to 85% did not have a postsecondary education. In Japan, the proportion was 78%.

These proportions represent the educational attainment of the entire population aged 25-64. As a result, they do not reflect recent expansions in secondary and postsecondary education that have occurred in several countries, such as Portugal and Spain. Demographic factors, such as migration and mortality, also influence the data.

Fewer women with university degrees in all countries In Canada and most other OECD countries, men are more likely than women to have a university education, whereas women are more likely than men to have non-university higher education. This is partly because, in many nations, non-university programs provide training for traditionally female-dominated occupations, such as teaching or nursing.

For every 100 Canadian men aged 25-64 with a university education in 1989, there were 78 women with the same level of education. Gender differences were smaller in Sweden (87 women per 100 men), Spain (84 women per 100 men) and the United States (81 women per 100 men). In all other OECD countries except Portugal, however, gender differences were larger. The greatest differences were in Switzerland (45), Belgium (43), the Netherlands (39) and Japan (25). The gender difference in Portugal equalled that of Canada.

Among Canadians with a non-university higher education, there were 115 women for every 100 men. Countries where women were considerably more over-represented in non-university programs included Japan, Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, Portugal and Denmark. In these countries, the ratio ranged from 163 to 340 women for every 100 men. Fewer women than men had a non-university higher education in the United States, Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Norway.

Government spending on education in Canada high Public expenditure on education in Canada represented 14.4% of total government spending in 1988. Only Finland (17.1%) and Switzerland (14.7%) spent a greater proportion of their total public expenditure on education that year. The average proportion allocated to education in OECD countries was 12.0%.

In Canada, 65.2% of all government spending on education was directed toward primary and secondary education and 34.8% toward both university and non-university higher education. In

contrast, most other OECD countries directed a greater proportion of their education budgets to primary and secondary education. The average percentage of public expenditure on education directed toward primary and secondary education among OECD countries was 73.0%, while expenditure on higher education averaged 21.9%. Support from the public sector in Canada has made higher education accessible to more Canadians than it would have been if all costs were privately financed.

Pre-primary and university enrolment rates differ In Canada, 57.5%[2] of young people aged 2-29 were students in educational programs ranging from pre-primary through to postsecondary education. Only three other OECD countries, Belgium (63.6%), France (62.0%) and Spain (59.6%) had significantly higher enrolment rates than Canada. The lowest enrolment rates were in Turkey, Luxembourg, Portugal and Sweden. In these countries, the average rate was 46.4%. Most of the variations in enrolment rates among countries are due to differences in participation in pre-primary educational programs and postsecondary education.

Enrolment rates in Belgium and France, in particular, are high because these countries have nearly universal pre-primary enrolment of children beginning at age 3, with over 90% of children age 3 participating. In over one-half of all OECD countries, pre-primary education begins at age 3. Fewer children are enrolled during the first year in these countries, however, than in Belgium and France. In Canada, pre-primary education begins, typically, at age 5. The only OECD countries, other than Canada, which commence pre-primary education at age 5 or 6 are Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland.

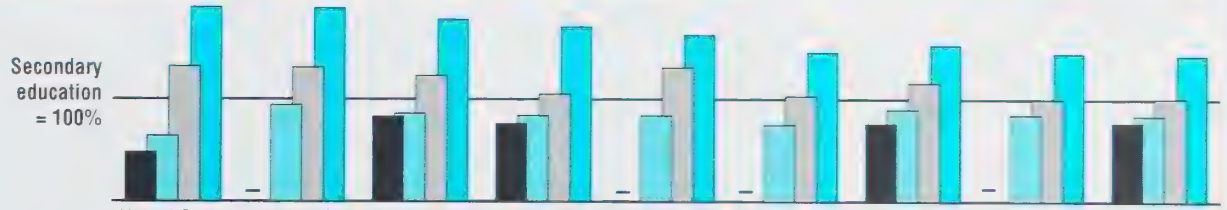
Participation in higher education both within and outside of universities was more common in Canada than in other OECD countries. In 1988, 48.7% of young Canadians aged 18-20 were enrolled in full-time non-university higher education which includes colleges and CEGEP programs (Quebec). Participation in the United States (44.6%) was slightly less than in Canada. The next highest enrolment rates were in Australia (34.3%), Sweden (27.3%) and Japan (26.3%). In some OECD countries, non-university higher education was almost non-existent. Rates were less than 5% in Austria, Luxembourg, Italy and Turkey.

Similarly, a larger proportion of young adults aged 18-25 in Canada (27.5%) were enrolled in university than young adults in other OECD countries. High enrolment rates were also found in Austria (25%), the United States (24.9%), Finland (22.8%) and Spain (22.7%). In Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal and Turkey, less than 10% of young adults were enrolled in university.

Gender differences smaller among those currently enrolled in higher education Although there are differences in the educational attainment of men and women overall, in Canada and most OECD countries, gaps between the current enrolment rates of men and women in higher education are now small. In Canada, the difference was less than 1 percentage point for non-university higher education and just over 2 percentage points for university higher education in 1988. Large differences in enrolment rates between men and women still persist, however, in Japan, Denmark, Turkey and Germany. University enrolment of men was more than three times that of women in Japan and double that of women in Turkey. On the other hand, women were more

[2] Part-time participation in formal education was converted to full-time equivalents.

Relative average annual earnings, by education level of adults aged 45-64, selected countries CST



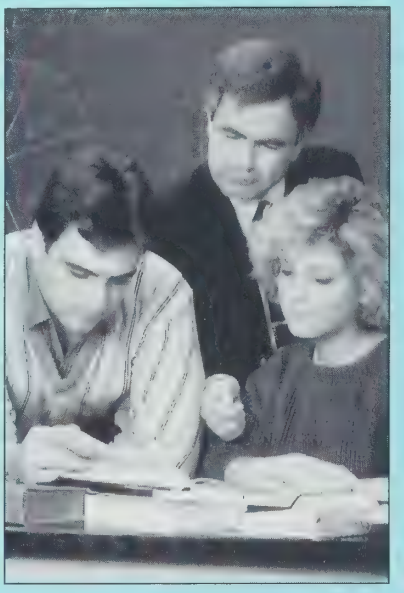
	United States 1989	Finland[1] 1988	Netherlands 1985	**Canada 1989**	United Kingdom[1] 1988	Australia[1] 1986	Sweden 1988	Denmark[1] 1988	New Zealand 1989
Pre-primary or primary education	48%	--	83%	**76%**	--	--	76%	--	77%
Lower secondary education	64%	94%	86%	**84%**	84%	75%	90%	85%	84%
Non-university higher education	132%	131%	123%	**105%**	131%	103%	116%	100%	101%
University higher education	190%	189%	178%	**171%**	163%	146%	153%	145%	143%

[1] Estimates unavailable for pre-primary and primary.
Source: OECD, 1992.

Seven countries with the largest proportion of graduates awarded science and engineering degrees and Canada, 1988 CST

	All science and engineering	Natural sciences	Computer sciences	Engineering
	% of all graduates			
France	39.6	10.4	7.7	21.6
Belgium	32.9	5.6	2.0	25.3
Finland	32.0	6.6	5.5	19.9
Germany	29.3	7.8	2.8	18.7
Ireland	26.9	14.1	2.6	12.3
Japan	26.1	3.1	--	23.0
Denmark	25.8	5.8	1.3	18.7
Canada	**17.6**	**6.4**	**4.5**	**6.8**

Source: OECD, 1992.



twice as likely as men to be enrolled in a non-university higher education program in Japan, Denmark and Germany.

Secondary completion lower, university graduation higher in Canada Young people in Canada are less likely to complete a secondary education than young people in several other OECD countries. However, the proportion completing a first university degree in Canada is second only to that of the United States and Japan.

The OECD estimated secondary graduation levels by expressing the number of secondary graduates as a proportion of the population of theoretical secondary school completion age (age 17 in Canada). According to this calculation, about one-half of all OECD countries had higher rates of secondary school graduation than Canada.

Similarly, to determine graduation rates, the population graduating with a first university degree or equivalent was expressed as a proportion of the population of theoretical completion age (age 22 in Canada). According to this calculation, the graduation rate in Canada (25.4%) was higher than that of most other OECD countries. Only Japan (26.3%) and the United States (25.6%) had higher rates. The average completion rate among OECD countries was 15.2%.

Science and engineering degrees less common in Canada In Canada, 17.6% of all university degrees awarded in 1988 were science or engineering degrees. Only three other OECD countries had a smaller proportion of science and engineering graduates than did Canada: Italy (15.9%), Norway (15.5%) and Spain (13.6%). In Canada, low rates occurred, in part, because students have greater access to liberal arts programs than students in many other countries. In contrast, more than 25% of all degrees granted in Japan, Belgium, France, Germany, Ireland, Denmark and Finland were for science or engineering. Among these top seven countries, most graduates held engineering degrees. In Canada, only 6.8% of science and engineering graduates had engineering degrees.

Very few women in all OECD countries graduated with engineering degrees in 1988. An average of 3.5% of female university graduates were awarded engineering degrees, compared with 20.4% of male university graduates. In Canada, just 1.4% of all degrees awarded to women in 1988 were for engineering, compared with 13% of degrees awarded to men.

Gender differences in the natural and computer sciences were not as pronounced. In Canada, however, there were almost twice as many male graduates with natural science degrees and more than three times as many male graduates with computer science degrees than there were female graduates.

Higher educational attainment leads to higher earnings Throughout the OECD, higher levels of education were associated with higher earnings among adults aged 45-64. However, the spread between earnings by education level varied by country. Among all OECD countries with available data, the greatest differences in earnings by education level were in the United States. In that country, the average earnings of adults with a primary education in 1989 were less than half of those with a secondary education. On the other hand, American adults with a university education earned almost twice as much as those with an secondary education. The smallest earnings differentials by education level were found in Denmark and New Zealand.

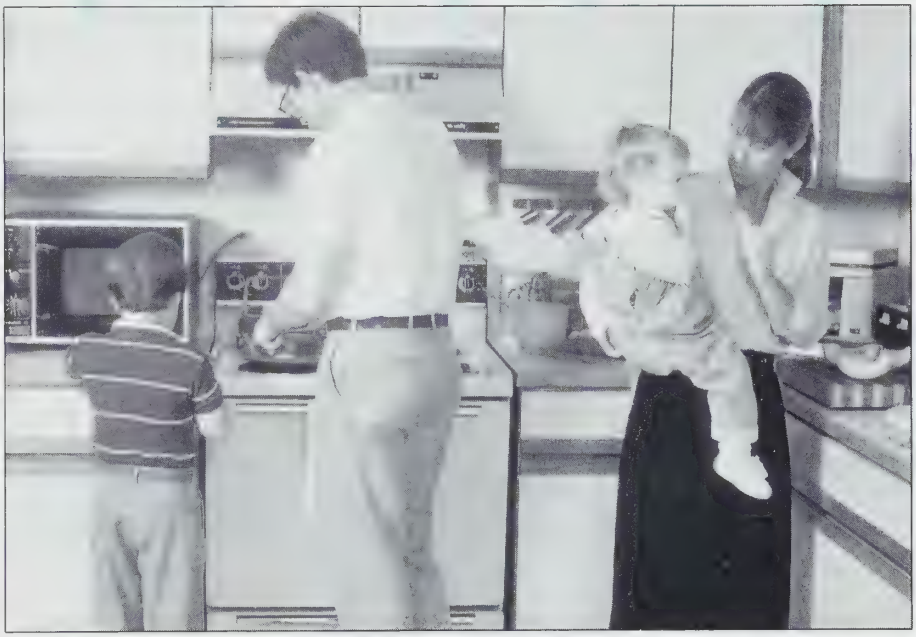
In Canada, the average 1989 earnings of adults aged 45-64 with a university education were 1.7 times greater than the earnings of those with a secondary education. Similarly, the earnings of adults with non-university higher education were 1.1 times greater than the earnings of those with a secondary education. The average earnings of adults aged 45-64 with a lower secondary education were 84% of those of adults with a secondary education. The average earnings of adults with a primary education or less were 76% of those of adults with a secondary education.

Jillian Oderkirk is an Editor with *Canadian Social Trends.*



Time Use of Canadians in 1992

by Mary Sue Devereaux





One-in-three Canadians feel they are constantly under stress, trying to juggle personal, family and work demands on their time. Women, particularly mothers with young children and a full-time job, feel especially time pressured. Whether they are students, working at or looking for a job, keeping house or retired, women report having less free time than men.

The amount of time that both men and women devote to any particular activity varies with their work and family responsibilities. For example, people whose main activity is working at a job or business spend the most time on paid work. Similarly, those whose main activity is keeping house perform more hours of unpaid work than any other group. Nonetheless, some generalizations can be made about how adult Canadians, overall, spend their time.

According to Statistics Canada's 1992 General Social Survey, all Canadian adults averaged,[1] over a seven-day period, 3.6 hours a day on paid work and the same amount of time on unpaid work, such as domestic chores and volunteer activities. Free time accounted for another 5.7 hours. The largest block of time – 10.5 hours – was spent on personal care, most of it (8.1 hours) sleep. The remaining half hour in the average day was spent on education and related activities.

Men and women spend their time differently Men generally spent more time on paid work than did women, reflecting their higher labour force participation and greater likelihood to work full-time. In 1992 men averaged 4.5 hours a day of paid work[2] and related activities (including commuting), while women averaged 2.7 hours.

In contrast, women spent far more time than men on unpaid work, which includes child care, cooking and meal clean-up, house cleaning and laundry, shopping, maintenance and repairs, and volunteer activities. In 1992 women did an average of 4.5 hours a day of unpaid work, compared with only 2.6 hours for men. In addition, women spent more time than men on each individual unpaid work activity, with the exception of maintenance and repairs.

The only component of unpaid work that was clearly the domain of men was maintenance and repairs. There was no difference in the time that men and women devoted to volunteer work.

Men had slightly more free time than did women: an average of 6.0 hours a day versus 5.5 hours. Men spent most of this time watching television, an average of 2.4 hours a day, compared with 2.0 hours a day for women.

Working as a main activity Paid workers are a diverse group that includes young singles, couples with or without children, dual-earners and empty-nesters. Given this broad cross-section of Canadians, with varying responsibilities and obligations, it is difficult to make general statements about the way they spend their time. Nonetheless, the time use of people whose main activity is working at a job or business differs substantially from that of other adults.

In 1992 paid work and related activities (including commuting) was the main activity of 6.6 million men and 4.6 million women aged 15 and over. They represented 63% of adult men and 42% of adult women. Averaged over seven days, these men spent more time each day on the job than did women: 6.1 hours versus 5.2 hours. This is partly because women were more likely than men to have part-time jobs. As well, men spent slightly more time than women commuting to work: 32 minutes versus 28 minutes.

However, female workers made up for this difference when they got home. Not only were they more likely than male workers to do unpaid work on any given day (a daily participation rate of 93% versus 79%), but they also did more of it: 3.5 hours compared with 2.3 hours. When paid and unpaid work are combined, employed women actually "worked" slightly more hours a day (9.2) than did employed men (9.0).

Specifically, women, whose main activity was working at a job or business, spent an average of 54 minutes a day on meal preparation and clean-up, compared with 19 minutes for employed men. The discrepancy also prevailed for tasks such as cleaning and laundry: a daily average of 47 minutes for working women and 10 minutes for men. As well these women devoted more time to shopping and primary child care than did their male counterparts. Maintenance and repair and other household work are the only household tasks on which employed men spent more time than did employed women (43 minutes a day versus 20 minutes).

Women working full-time[3] are more affected by the presence of young children than are men. In 1992 women who were employed full-time and whose youngest child was under age 6 did a daily average of 5.4 hours of unpaid work, including child care, while their male counterparts did just 3.4 hours of unpaid work.

Women working full-time devoted 2.2 hours a day to primary child care, whereas the corresponding figure for men was 1.2 hours. Primary child care refers only to time actually devoted to doing something for a child (for instance, feeding or bathing). It does not include the time when the main focus might be on another activity (cooking dinner, for example), although children are close by and are being supervised. In fact, if time spent with children under age 6 is considered, these mothers spent an average of 6.0 hours a

Average time spent on selected activities, by main activity and gender, 1992

Activity	Total population	Main activity: Employed	Keeping house	Looking for work	Student	Retired
		Average daily hours[1]				
Paid work and related activities						
Men	4.5	6.7	--	1.1	1.0	0.2
Women	2.7	5.7	0.3	0.8	0.9	0.1
Unpaid work						
Men	2.6	2.3	--	3.4	1.0	4.0
Women	4.5	3.5	6.4	5.5	1.8	4.6
School and education						
Men	0.6	0.1	--	0.4	5.7	0.0
Women	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.2	5.5	0.0
Personal care						
Men	10.3	9.9	--	11.0	10.3	11.5
Women	10.8	10.3	11.0	10.7	10.6	11.6
Free time						
Men	6.0	5.1	--	8.0	6.1	8.3
Women	5.5	4.3	6.2	6.8	5.2	7.7

[1] Seven-day average.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.

day with children; for fathers working full-time, the average was 4.3 hours.

Employed women tended to spend more time on personal care, including sleep, than did employed men. The daily average for women was 10.3 hours, whereas for men the average was 9.9 hours. Sleep accounted for much of this difference, as employed women averaged 8.0 hours a night and employed men, 7.7 hours.

On the other hand, employed men had more free time – an average of 5.1 hours a day, compared with 4.3 hours for employed women. Some of the discrepancy was attributable to television viewing, which consumed an average of 2.0 hours a day for employed men, but just 1.4 hours for employed women. Employed men also spent more time than women on active leisure activities, such as sports, hobbies and games.

Women keeping house Women accounted for virtually all (96%) of the 3.4 million people who described their main activity as keeping house in 1992. These women made up 30% of the adult female population.

As might be expected, women keeping house did more unpaid work than any other group – an average of 6.4 hours a day. And while the specific tasks varied for women of different ages, the total amount of unpaid work remained relatively constant.

They also spent the most time on primary child care. And if hours spent with children are considered, mothers whose main activity was keeping house and who had children younger than age 15 averaged 8.3 hours a day with their children.

The average amount of free time available to women keeping house was 6.2 hours a day, about 2 hours more than was reported by women whose main activity was working at a job or business. While television viewing took up over a third of these free hours (2.4), socializing and active leisure pursuits together accounted for a longer period (3.1 hours).

Job-seekers In 1992 just over one million Canadian adults reported that their main activity was "looking for work." Men aged 15 and over (7%) were more likely than women that age (3%) to be job-seekers.



The lack of paid employment meant that job-seekers had more time for household chores, leisure and sleep. Unpaid work, in particular, claimed a considerable amount of job-seekers' time, especially among women. Overall these women spent an average of 5.5 hours a day on unpaid work, compared with 3.4 hours for men. Female job-seekers spent almost as much time on house cleaning and laundry as did women whose main activity was keeping house, but spent substantially less time on cooking and primary child care. However, at 1.3 hours, their average daily shopping time was greater than that of any other group.

As a result, male job-seekers had considerably more free time than did their female counterparts: 8.0 hours compared with 6.8. The difference was largely attributable to active leisure, which took up an average of 1.8 hours a day for men, but just 1.0 hour for women. As well, these men spent more time socializing than did comparable women (2.6 hours versus 2.3 hours). On the other hand, both men and women looking for work devoted just under 3 hours a day to television viewing.

Students Students are often young single people with few family or work responsibilities. Therefore, their time is largely governed by the hours that they must devote to educational activities. In 1992 about 1.9 million people aged 15 and over reported their main activity as students. They accounted for just under 9% of both men and women this age.

Education and related activities consumed an average of 5.7 hours a day for male students and 5.5 hours for female students. Relatively few (19% of the men and 17% of the women) reported paid work. Consequently, for both men and women, daily paid employment averaged less than an hour. As well students did little unpaid work – 1.0 hour for men and 1.8 hours for women. Therefore, their total work time (i.e. paid and unpaid) was less than that of any other group: 2.0 hours for men and 2.7 hours for women. However, if the hours spent on their studies are counted as "work" (students would be unlikely to consider it "leisure"), their total average daily work time amounted to 7.7 hours for men and 8.2 hours for women. These totals approached those of

[1] Daily time-use data is averaged over seven days.

[2] Only activities identified as the respondent's primary activity at any given time are presented; however, the respondent may have also been doing other activities at the same time.

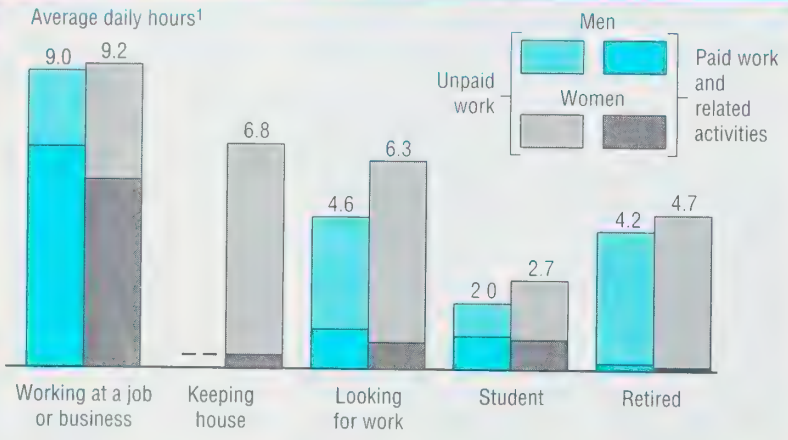
[3] Working 30 hours or more at their job(s).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

General Social Survey

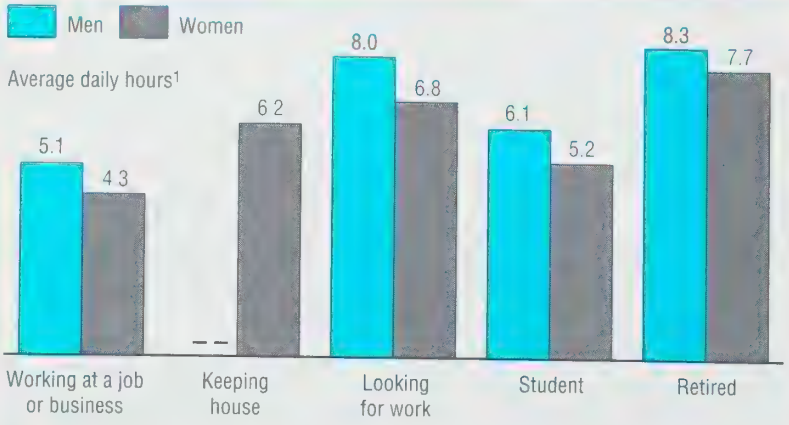
Statistics Canada's General Social Survey (GSS) collects data on a variety of socioeconomic topics from approximately 10,000 households. The survey operates on a five-year cycle, each year examining one of five core subjects: health, time use, accidents and criminal victimization, education and work, and family and friends. More information on time use is available in the General Social Survey Working Paper #9: "Overview of 1992 General Social Survey on Time Use;" from the Public Use Microdata File; or by contacting General Social Survey, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6, Telephone: (613) 951-0279.

Time spent on paid and unpaid work, by main activity and gender, 1992



[1] Seven-day average.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.

Amount of free time, by main activity and gender, 1992



[1] Seven-day average.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.

men and women whose main activity was paid employment.

Aside from the employed, students had the least free time of any group. However, as was typical of the other groups, male students reported more free hours than did their female counterparts: an average of 6.1 hours a day, compared with 5.2. Television viewing and active leisure pursuits took up more time for male than female students. Male students spent more time on active sports than did men in any other situation, averaging more than an hour a day. Female students, on the other hand, spent more time socializing than did male students and almost as much time as women who were job-seekers.

Retired The retired population in 1992 numbered close to 2.7 million. Almost 15% of adult men reported that they were retired, compared with just 11% of adult women.

The vast majority of retired people are aged 55 and over and so are less likely to have family responsibilities or to be looking for work than other adults. Therefore, retirees can devote more time to other activities, such as volunteer work.

Although the typical division of male and female time prevailed among retired people, it was less pronounced than in any other group. Retired women averaged 4.6 hours of unpaid work a day, compared with 4.0 hours for retired men. Compared to men whose main activity was working at a job or business, looking for work or studying, those who were retired spent the most time cooking, house cleaning and shopping.

The retirement years allow more time for volunteer work. Male retirees averaged 49 minutes a day on these activities, compared with 31 minutes for female retirees.

Retirees had the most free time – a daily average of 8.3 hours for men and 7.7 hours for women. And while they watched the most television (3.5 hours for men and 2.8 hours for women), they also spent considerable time socializing (about 2 hours a day for both men and women) and on active leisure pursuits.

Mary Sue Devereaux is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.

Ethnic Diversity in the 1990s

by Viviane Renaud and Jane Badets

Canada is becoming increasingly diverse in its ethnic composition, with proportionately more people reporting origins other than British or French. This trend is partly due to an increase in the number of recent immigrants coming from non-European rather than European countries. It is also influenced by an increase in the number of people reporting Canadian or Aboriginal ancestry. Nonetheless, most people in all provinces still claim British or French origins. Canada's ethnic make-up, however, varies considerably by region, reflecting where different waves of immigrants have settled over time.

British and French still Canada's largest ethnic groups According to the 1991 Census, British and French are still the largest ethnic groups in Canada. The proportion of people reporting British only origins, however, declined over the last five years to 28% of the population in 1991, from 34% in 1986. Also over the same period, the number of people with British only origins declined to 7.6 million, from 8.4 million.



Relatively little change occurred in the proportion or the number of people with French ancestry. In 1991, 23% of the population reported French only origins, compared with 24% in 1986. The number of people in this group, however, increased slightly to 6.2 million from 6.1 million over the same period.

The proportions of people reporting British and French ancestry, as well as British and/or French in conjunction with other ethnic origins, also remained fairly stable between 1986 and 1991. In 1991, 4% of the population reported a combination of British and French backgrounds, while 14% reported British and/or French in conjunction with other ethnic origins.

Increasing proportion neither British nor French In 1991, 31% of the population reported an ethnic background other than British or French, up from 25% in 1986. There were two major reasons for this trend: first, the number of recent immigrants and non-permanent residents (who were included for the first time in the 1991 Census) with neither British nor French backgrounds increased; and secondly, higher proportions of people reported Canadian and Aboriginal origins in 1991.

More people reporting Canadian
Between 1986 and 1991, the census recorded a substantial increase in the number of respondents reporting Canadian ancestry. Pre-census publicity calling for the reporting of Canadian as an expression of national identity may have contributed to this recent increase and the corresponding decrease in other origins, especially British.

Over one million respondents, or 4% of the total population, reported some Canadian ancestry in 1991: 765,100 reported Canadian only and 267,900 reported Canadian in conjunction with other ethnic origins. People reporting Canadian were the fourth largest single response ethnic group in the country and in the top ten single response groups in every province except Quebec.

A segment of the population has always reported their ancestry as Canadian. As early as 1951 when the census first published results on Canadian ethnic origin, 71,800 people reported their origin as Canadian. By 1986, 69,100 people reported a single origin of Canadian, while 43,800 reported Canadian in conjunction with some other ethnic background.

Two-thirds (67%) of those reporting Canadian ethnic ancestry in 1991 – both single and multiple – lived in Ontario. A further 12% resided in Alberta, 8% in British Columbia, 4% in Saskatchewan and 3% in Quebec. The remaining 6% lived in the other provinces and territories.

Increase in reported Aboriginal origins
Just over one million people in Canada reported one or more Aboriginal origins in 1991, up from nearly three-quarters of a million in 1986. Demographic factors cannot explain a five-year increase of this magnitude. Clearly, many people who had not previously reported Aboriginal ancestry did so in 1991. This was most likely due to heightened awareness of Aboriginal issues,

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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Ethnicity and related definitions Measures of ethnicity are complex and can be affected by changes in the environment in which the questions are asked, as well as by changes in respondents' understanding or views about the topic. In addition, factors such as awareness of family background or length of time since immigration can affect responses to the question, as can confusion with other concepts, such as citizenship, nationality or language.

- *Ethnic origin* refers to the ethnic or cultural group(s) to which an individual's ancestors belonged; it pertains to the ancestral roots or origins of the population and not to place of birth, citizenship or nationality.
- *Single ethnic response* occurs when a respondent reports only one ethnic origin. For example, 750,055 people indicated that their only ethnic origin was Italian.
- *Multiple ethnic response* occurs when a respondent reports more than one ethnic origin. For example, 397,720 people gave a response which included Italian and one or more other ethnic or cultural groups.
- *British only origins* include single responses of English, Irish, Scottish, Welsh or other British, as well as multiple British only responses – that is, a combination of English, Irish, Scottish, Welsh or other British.
- *French only origins* include the single responses of French, Acadian, Québécois and multiple French only responses – that is, a combination of French, Acadian or Québécois.
- *Non-permanent residents* refers to people who hold student or employment authorizations, Minister's permits or who are refugee claimants.



Ethnic origins, 1991

CST

	Total	British only	French only	British and French	British and/or French and other	Other	Other main groups (single responses as % of total population)	%
Newfoundland								
%	100.0	88.3	1.7	3.9	3.6	2.5	Aboriginal	0.9
Number	563,940						German	0.2
							Canadian	0.2
Prince Edward Island								
%	100.0	65.6	9.4	12.3	8.7	4.0	Dutch	1.0
Number	128,100						Canadian	0.6
							German	0.5
Nova Scotia								
%	100.0	58.2	6.3	9.0	15.5	10.9	German	2.8
Number	890,950						Black	1.2
							Canadian	1.1
New Brunswick								
%	100.0	44.0	33.5	9.2	8.3	4.9	Canadian	1.3
Number	716,495						German	0.6
							Aboriginal	0.6
Quebec								
%	100.0	5.1	74.6	2.7	3.7	13.9	Italian	2.6
Number	6,810,300						Jewish	1.1
							Aboriginal	1.0
							Greek	0.7
Ontario								
%	100.0	34.9	5.3	4.6	15.5	39.7	Canadian	5.3
Number	9,977,055						Italian	4.9
							German	2.9
							Chinese	2.7
Manitoba								
%	100.0	24.8	5.0	2.9	19.8	47.4	German	8.7
Number	1,079,390						Aboriginal	6.9
							Ukrainian	6.9
Saskatchewan								
%	100.0	23.4	3.1	2.5	25.2	45.8	German	12.4
Number	976,040						Aboriginal	6.8
							Ukrainian	5.7
Alberta								
%	100.0	27.7	3.0	3.3	24.6	41.5	German	7.4
Number	2,519,185						Ukrainian	4.1
							Canadian	3.7
British Columbia								
%	100.0	35.2	2.1	3.3	21.7	37.7	Chinese	5.6
Number	3,247,505						German	4.8
							East Indian	2.7
							Aboriginal	2.3
Yukon								
%	100.0	29.6	3.2	4.2	28.6	34.4	Aboriginal	13.7
Number	27,655						German	3.8
Northwest Territories								
%	100.0	14.7	2.4	2.5	16.1	64.3	Aboriginal	51.2
Number	57,430						Canadian	1.8
Canada								
%	**100.0**	**28.1**	**22.8**	**4.0**	**14.2**	**30.9**	**German**	**3.4**
Number	**26,994,040**						**Canadian**	**2.8**
							Italian	**2.8**
							Chinese	**2.2**

Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada

resulting from the considerable public attention given to these issues in the year prior to the 1991 Census.

The sharp increase in the number of people reporting Aboriginal origins resulted in a rise in the proportion of the population with this ancestry. In 1991, 2.0% of Canada's population reported Aboriginal origins in combination with other backgrounds, up from 1.4% in 1986. The increase was somewhat less for those reporting single Aboriginal origins (to 1.7% from 1.5%).

Increase in people with Asian origins A rise in the number of people reporting Asian ancestry reflects increased Asian immigration to Canada in recent decades. Those reporting single Asian origins (South Asian, East and South East Asian) represented 5.1% of the total population in 1991, up from 3.5% in 1986. The largest Asian single response groups in 1991 were Chinese (2.2% of the total population) and East Indian (1.2%).

People of Caribbean or Latin/Central/South American origins comprised 0.7% of the total population in 1991, up from 0.3% in 1986. The proportion reporting a single Black ancestry (0.8%) was about the same in 1991 as in 1986.

People reporting European ancestry continue to comprise the largest proportion of the population with neither British nor French origins. In 1991 people reporting a single European origin made up 15% of the total population, a proportion virtually unchanged since 1986. The three largest European single origin groups were German (3.4%), Italian (2.8%) and Ukrainian (1.5%) in 1991.

Atlantic Canada has highest proportion with British roots Among all provinces, Newfoundland had the highest proportion of residents reporting British only origins (88%). Other proportions ranged from 66% in Prince Edward Island and 58% in Nova Scotia to 44% in New Brunswick.

People of French only ancestry represented one-third of the population of New Brunswick in 1991. The proportion reporting French only origins was less than 10% in each of the other three Atlantic provinces.

Of the four Atlantic provinces, Nova Scotia (11%) had the highest proportion reporting origins that did not include British or French. This compared with 5% or less in each of the other three provinces.

Three-quarters of Quebec's population report French only origins Quebec had, by far, the highest proportion of people reporting French only origins (75%). This was down from 78% in 1986.

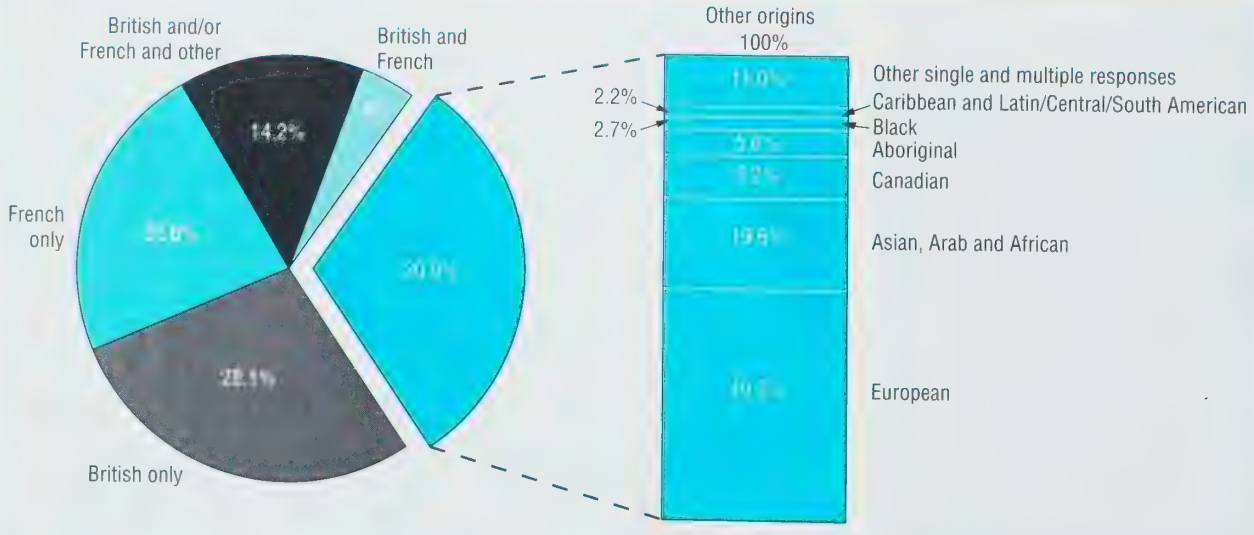
Nonetheless, Quebec was a common destination for many non-British, non-French ethnic groups. In 1991, 44% of people reporting Arab single origins resided in Quebec, the largest Arab community in Canada. Quebec also had the largest Haitian community in Canada, with 95% of all people in Canada reporting Haitian single origins residing in this province. Next to Ontario, Quebec had the largest communities of people with Italian, Jewish, Greek, Portuguese, West Asian, Indo-Chinese, Latin/Central/South American, Caribbean and Black origins.

People in Quebec with origins other than French or British were concentrated in the Montreal census metropolitan area (CMA). In 1991, 85% of all provincial residents who reported origins other than French or British lived in that CMA. The largest Lebanese and Haitian communities in Canada were in Montreal.

Ontario: a diversity of ethnic groups Over half of Canada's immigrant population resided in Ontario in 1991. The attraction

Continued on page 22

Ethnic composition of Canada's population, 1991



Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

Reporting of mixed ethnic backgrounds Since 1981, Canadians have been able to describe their ethnic background more fully on the census by reporting more than one ethnic origin. Nearly eight million people in 1991, or 29% of the population, reported more than one ethnic origin. This proportion is about the same as it was in 1986 (28%).

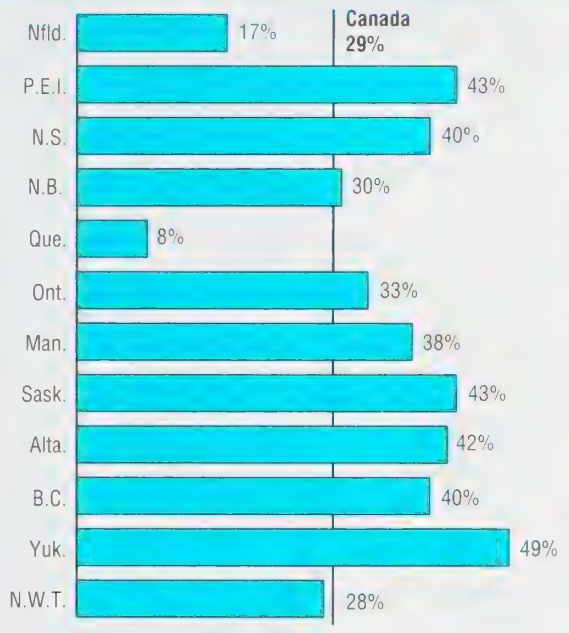
Nearly one-third (32%) of the Canadian-born population reported a mixed ethnic background in 1991, compared with only 11% of the immigrant population. However, the reporting of multiple ethnic origins varied among ethnic groups. For example, 81% of people reporting Irish and 79% reporting Scottish origins also reported other ethnic origins. Mixed ethnic backgrounds tended to be especially common among people originating in Northern, Western and Eastern Europe. For example, 82% of Swedish, 78% of Norwegian, 76% of Russian, 67% of German, 63% of each of Polish and Dutch and 61% of Ukrainian responses were multiple.

On the other hand, groups reporting French and Southern European origins were less likely than others to have mixed ethnic backgrounds. In 1991, 16% of Portuguese, 21% of Greek, 27% of French and 35% of Italian responses were multiple.

Ethnic groups with high levels of recent immigration were the least likely, by far, to report a mixed background. For example, only 4% of Koreans, 7% of Afghans, 9% of Cambodians and 10% of Chinese reported two or more ethnic origins.

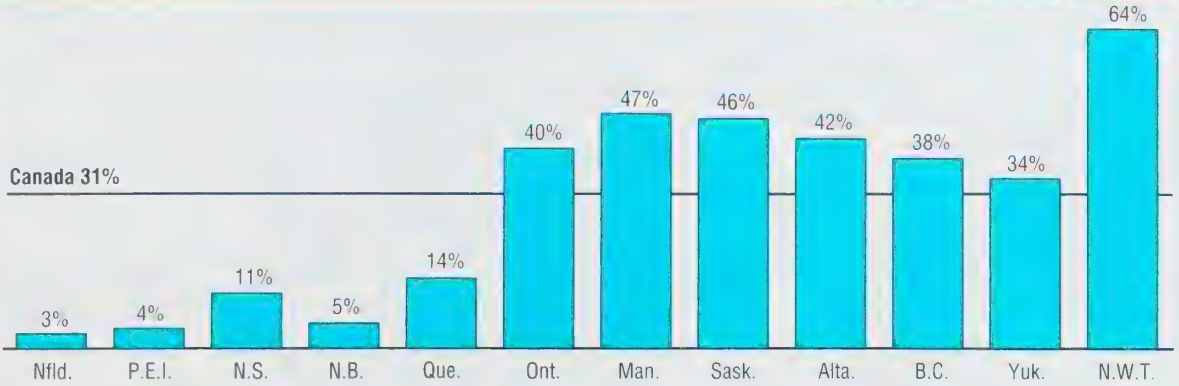
There was also considerable regional variation in the reporting of single and multiple ethnic backgrounds. Quebec had the highest proportion of single responses (92%), while the Yukon Territory had the highest proportion of multiple responses (49%). Moreover, for some ethnic groups, the reporting of mixed ethnic backgrounds varied from province to province. For example, only 7% of people reporting a French ancestry in Quebec did so in combination with other origins, while 80% of those of French origin in British Columbia reported two or more origins. Likewise, the proportion of people reporting British ancestry in combination with other ethnic origins ranged from 18% in Newfoundland to 68% in the Yukon.

Multiple responses as a proportion of all responses, 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

Proportion of population reporting origins other than British or French, 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

of immigrants to Ontario is reflected in the diversity of ethnic groups living in this province. In 1991, 40% of Ontario's population reported ethnic origins other than British or French. Those of British only ancestry made up 35% of Ontario's population and 5% reported a French only origin.

Ontario was home to large communities of many ethnic groups. Over half of all people reporting West Asian (54%), South Asian (55%), Caribbean (63%), Black (67%) and African (70%), single ethnic origins lived in Ontario.

Compared to all CMAs, Toronto had the highest proportion of people reporting origins other than British or French. In 1991, 59% of Toronto's population reported non-British/non-French ancestry, up from 45% in 1986. About one-half of this increase was due to the rise in the proportion of people reporting Canadian ethnic origins. In 1991, 7% of Toronto's population reported Canadian ancestry, up from less than 1% in 1986. Also contributing to the increase was the rise in the number of immigrants settling in Toronto since 1986 and the inclusion of non-permanent residents in the 1991 Census.

Those reporting a single European ancestry made up 26% of the Toronto CMA's population, 14% were of single Asian origin and 3% reported a single Black ancestry. Some of Canada's largest ethnic communities in Canada were in Toronto. For example, the largest Italian, Portuguese, Greek, Polish, Jewish, Chinese, South Asian, Filipino, Black and Caribbean communities were in the Toronto metropolitan area.

Prairies reflect earlier immigration waves The Prairie provinces had the highest proportions of people reporting origins other than British or French (excluding the Northwest Territories). The non-British, non-French group made up 47% of the population in Manitoba, 46% in Saskatchewan and 41% in Alberta.

In the three Prairie provinces, people of European ancestry represented the largest percentage of those with origins other than British: 26% in Manitoba and Saskatchewan and 21% in Alberta. Ethnic groups, such as German and Ukrainian, who immigrated to Canada earlier in the country's history were generally more prevalent in these provinces.

People reporting Aboriginal origins represented a larger proportion of the three Prairie provinces' populations than elsewhere, with the exception of the Territories. Those reporting single Aboriginal origins made up 7% of the population in both Manitoba and Saskatchewan and 3% in Alberta.

Overall, those of British only ancestry represented about one-quarter of the population in each of the three Prairie provinces. People of French only ancestry made up 5% or less of each of the province's populations.

One-in-nine British Columbia residents of Asian origin People of Asian ancestry (single response) represent an increasing share of British Columbia's residents. In 1991 they accounted for 11% of the provincial population, up from 8% in 1986. Six percent of British Columbia's residents reported Chinese and 3% reported East Indian as their only ethnic origin in 1991.

The Vancouver CMA has been the focus of recent immigration to Canada from Asia, a trend which is reflected in the growing proportion of Asian ethnic groups. In 1991 those reporting a single Asian ancestry accounted for 19% of the population, compared with 13% in 1986. After British, Chinese (11%) and East Indian (4%) were the largest single ethnic groups in Vancouver.

In 1991, 38% of British Columbia's population reported having origins other than British or French, followed by 35% who were of British ancestry, 22% of British and/or French and other origins, and 2% of French only origins. Those of single European ancestry were the largest of the non-British, non-French groups, accounting for 17% of the provincial population.

Aboriginal origins the majority in the Northwest Territories The Northwest Territories was the only province or territory where neither British nor French constituted the largest ethnic group. Over half of the population reported single Aboriginal origins in 1991: 32% reported Inuit, 15%, North American Indian and 4%, Métis.

The Yukon also had a relatively large Aboriginal population. In 1991, 14% of the territory's population reported single Aboriginal origins, the largest single response group after British.

Viviane Renaud is a senior analyst and **Jane Badets** is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

Ethnic origins, Montreal, Toronto and Vancouver, 1991 CST

CMAs	Total	British only	French only	British and French	British and/or French and other	Other	Other main groups (single responses as % of total population)	
Toronto								%
%	100.0	26.2	1.4	2.2	10.9	59.3	Italian	8.1
Number	3,863,110						Canadian	6.9
							Chinese	6.0
							East Indian	3.7
Montreal								
%	100.0	6.7	59.1	3.1	5.2	26.0	Italian	5.4
Number	3,091,110						Jewish	2.5
							Greek	1.6
							Black	1.3
Vancouver								
%	100.0	32.6	1.8	2.9	18.4	44.4	Chinese	10.6
Number	1,584,115						East Indian	4.2
							German	3.9
							Italian	1.9

Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

Seniors 75+

Living Arrangements and Lifestyles



Seniors aged 75 and over are forming a growing share of Canada's population. This is due to recent low overall fertility rates and increased longevity. In addition, a larger proportion of today's older seniors are living in their own homes. Consequently, the lifestyles of older seniors will have a significant impact upon a broad range of goods and services provided by the market and by government and non-government organizations.

According to the census, 4.7% of Canadians were aged 75 and older in 1991, compared with 3.1% in 1971. The population of older senior women more than doubled during this period to 785,900 and is projected to nearly double again to 1.43 million by 2011. From 1971 to 1991, the number of men aged 75 and over grew 71% to 479,000. In the next twenty years, the male population is projected to grow to 823,200.

The characteristics of older senior men and women differ considerably. Women aged 75 and over tend to live longer than men that age. Therefore, it is not surprising that in 1991 most older seniors were women (62%) and that of these women the majority (65%) were widowed. Most older senior men, on the other hand, were married (65%). The presence of a spouse has a significant effect on the living arrangements and lifestyles of older seniors.

Seniors 75+

Living Arrangements

by Gordon E. Priest

adapted from a paper presented to the Canadian Association on Gerontology, October 22, 1992

A growing population of Canada's older seniors are staying in their own homes. Along with a small increase from 1971 to 1991 in the proportion of men and women aged 75 and over who lived with a spouse in their own home, there was a large increase in the proportion living alone. Conversely, fewer older seniors lived in other people's homes in 1991 than in 1971. Over the past decade, the percentage of seniors living in institutions, such as hospitals and special care homes has stayed the same.

Older senior men much more likely to be married and living in their own home In 1991, 35% of older seniors were living with their spouse in a dwelling they maintained. Older senior men aged 75 and over (58%) were much more likely than women that age (20%) to be in this situation. This is not surprising given that two-thirds of older senior men were married in 1991, while two-thirds of senior women were widowed.

The proportion of married senior men maintaining their own home in 1991 was up from just over 50% in 1971, while the proportion among senior women was about the same in the two reference years. By 2011,[1] assuming a modest convergence in the life expectancies of men and women, the proportion of both men and women living with a spouse in their own home should increase slightly.

In most provinces, the proportion of older seniors living with a spouse in a home they maintained was close to the national average in 1991. Only British Columbia (39%) and Saskatchewan (38%) had higher proportions, while the proportion in Quebec (31%) was lower.

High rates of in-migration of retirees in British Columbia and relatively high rates of home ownership and a rural character in Saskatchewan may have led to high proportions of seniors living with a spouse and maintaining their own home in these provinces. Quebec, on the other hand, had the highest proportion of women aged 75 and over who had never married (15% compared with the national average of 9%).

While some metropolitan areas have characteristics that attract retired couples, a higher proportion of senior couples in many provinces were living in smaller urban or rural areas.

In 19 of Canada's 25 census metropolitan areas (CMAs), the proportion of older seniors maintaining a dwelling with a spouse was lower than the proportion of seniors in this situation in the provinces where the CMAs were located. The proportion of women aged 75 and over maintaining a dwelling with their spouse ranged from a low of 15% in the CMAs of Sherbrooke and Quebec to a high of 25% in Victoria.

Women 75+ more likely to live alone In 1991, 31% of seniors aged 75 and over were living alone. Older senior women (312,000) were almost four times as likely as men that age (82,000) to be in this situation. Twenty years ago, gender differences were much smaller.

Thirty-nine percent of older senior women in 1991 were living alone, up from 35% in 1981 and 26% in 1971. A further increase in the proportion to 42% is projected for 2011. In contrast, the proportion of older senior men living alone rose to 17% in 1991, from 16% in 1981 and 13% in 1971.

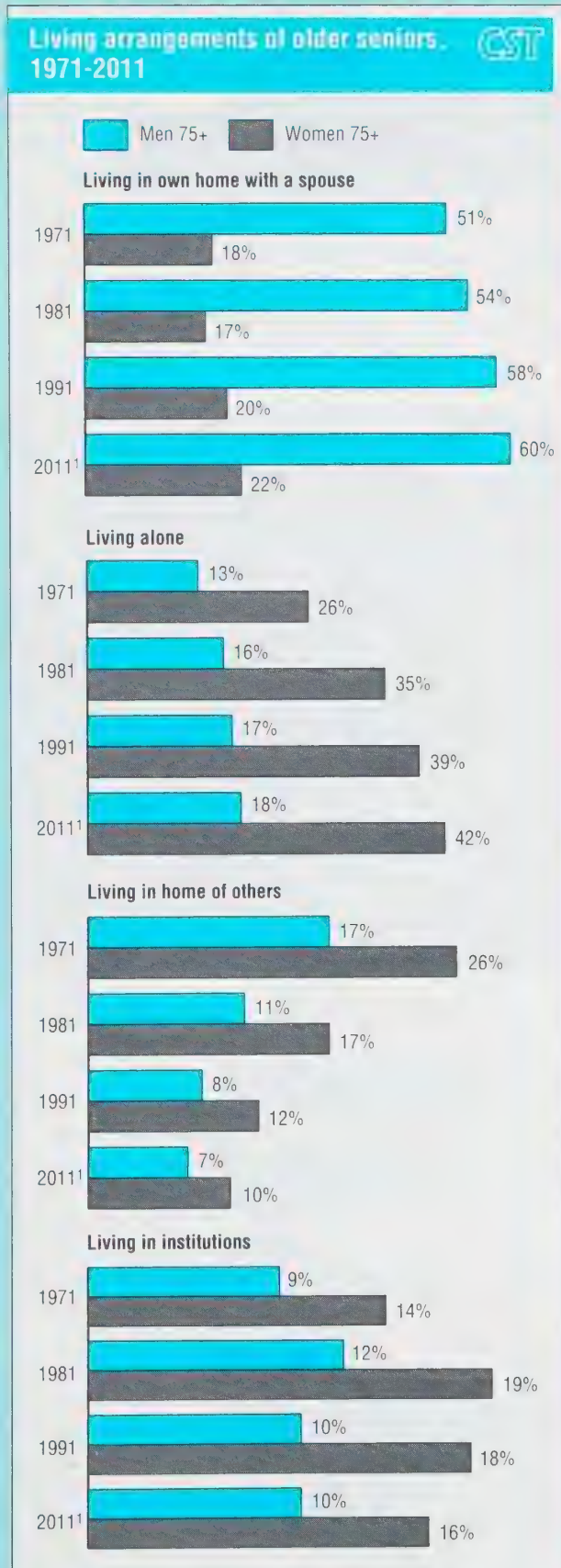
The proportion of older seniors living alone generally declines from west to east. Proportions in Ontario and the Western provinces were above the national average, while those in the Eastern provinces generally fell below. The smallest proportions of seniors living alone were in Newfoundland (20%) and Quebec (28%).

Within urban areas, the proportion of senior women living alone ranged from 27% in Chicoutimi-Jonquière, 31% in Sherbrooke and 34% in Trois-Rivières to 46% in Victoria, 48% in Saskatoon and 49% in Winnipeg.

Fewer seniors living in other people's homes Few seniors aged 75 and over in 1991 (11%) lived with others, such as their children, in a household they did not maintain. This proportion has declined since 1971 and is expected to decline further in the future.

The proportion of older senior women living with others fell to 12% in 1991, from 17% in 1981 and 26% in 1971, while the proportion of senior men dropped to 8% in 1991, from 11% in 1981 and 17% in 1971. Modest declines to 10% for women and 7% for men are projected for 2011.

Proportions of seniors living in other people's homes are well below the national average in the Western provinces, but above it in the Atlantic provinces. In Newfoundland, in particular, the proportion of older seniors living in other people's homes (20%) was almost double the national average. This suggests that residents of that province are more likely than others still to be providing care for seniors in multi-generational households. In fact, the



situation in Newfoundland in 1991 was not unlike that of the whole country in 1971.

Institutional living: more common among women, trends stable The proportion of older seniors living in institutions has remained relatively stable since the mid-1970s. About 18% of older senior women in both 1991 and 1976 were living in this situation. This is up from 1971 when 14% were living in an institution. Although the proportion of men aged 75 and over living in institutions in 1991 (10%) was somewhat lower than in 1981 (12%) and 1976 (11%), it was up slightly from 9% in 1971.

Fewer older seniors lived alone in Quebec (28%) than in all other provinces except Newfoundland, perhaps because a large proportion of older senior women in Quebec (almost 20%) lived in institutions. This suggests a stronger collective or community-based support system in that province. Also, a higher proportion of women in this province may have spent their lives living in collective dwellings. One-third of all special care units and one-half of all religious residences in Canada are located in Quebec. Quebec men were less likely to live in institutions (8%) than their counterparts in all other provinces.

There are considerable differences in the proportions of women aged 75 and over living in institutions, even within the same province. For example, in Quebec, Sherbrooke had the highest proportion of institutionalized women of any CMA in Canada (27%), while Trois-Rivières had one of the lowest (14%). Regional and local autonomy in the provision of institutional care may explain differences in institutional living among CMAs as well as among provinces.

Conclusion More older seniors today, particularly senior women, are living alone in their own homes instead of in the homes of other relatives. This may have occurred because government income security programs for seniors have improved their financial situation and hence their choices of living arrangements. Also, the families of older seniors today are more geographically dispersed and busier, particularly because the number of dual-earner couples has increased. Therefore, they may be less able to provide care for older relatives in their homes. Regardless of the reasons for this change, a growing population of older seniors living alone will result in an increased demand for goods and services that enable older seniors to maintain an independent lifestyle.

[1] Living arrangement projections were estimated by the author based on Statistics Canada population projections.

Gordon E. Priest is Director of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

Seniors 75+ Lifestyles

by Sandrine Prasil

The lifestyles of older seniors have changed considerably in recent years. These changes have been due to improvements in people's health and longevity, as well as in the quality and variety of services for seniors. Statistics Canada's 1991 Survey on Ageing and Independence provides a profile of the current lifestyles of people aged 75 and over living in private households.[1]

According to the Survey, low incomes and sparse accommodations were more common among senior women aged 75 and over than among men that age. Nonetheless, almost all older women and men were relatively satisfied with their incomes. Many older seniors living at home were limited because of a long-term illness or physical disability. For some, health problems led to feelings of stress or unhappiness. Most older seniors, however, had people in their lives they could rely on for support and perceived their lives as happy. Many older seniors also provided help to others.

Seniors enjoy a wide variety of activities both at home and away from home. Reading and going for walks were common leisure pursuits. In addition, many older seniors reported having a driver's license and enjoyed going for drives. Travel, both domestic and international, was also popular among many older seniors.



Most older seniors homeowners – nearly all mortgage-free In 1991, 56% of seniors aged 75 and over lived in a dwelling they owned. Almost all older seniors who owned their dwelling said they were mortgage-free (96%). Fourteen percent of senior homeowners also owned other property, such as a vacation home, or rental or business property.

Another 37% of older seniors rented accommodations with most renters (89%) in apartments. Female renters tended to live in smaller dwellings than did male renters: 55% lived in a one-bedroom unit, compared with 40% of men. The situation was reversed for two-bedroom units occupied by 44% of men aged 75 and over who rented and 33% of women that age. About 6% of people who rented accommodations owned another residence.

The remaining 7% of older seniors lived in someone else's home. This included living with their children.

Living within lower incomes Most people aged 75 and over in private households (62%) had household incomes under $20,000 in 1990. Women (70%) were more likely than men (50%) to have a household income that low. This is consistent with the greater odds of women living alone on one income. Relatively few senior men (12%) and women (6%) had household incomes of $40,000 and over. Those with higher household incomes were more likely than others to be married and to be closer to age 75.

In 1991, 49% of those with personal incomes under $10,000 were homeowners. On the other hand, 73% of those with personal incomes of $40,000 and over owned their homes.

Most older seniors received benefits from government pensions, including Old Age Security (92%) and Canada or Quebec Pension Plans (69%). Such pensions were the major source of income for 79% of women aged 75 and over and 60% of men that age. Older senior men (26%) were much more likely than women (9%)

[1] This article focuses only on older seniors living in private households. It excludes those living in nursing homes or other institutions.

to have retirement pension plans as their major income source. This is not surprising, given that relatively few women that age would have been employed when they were younger and able to contribute to private pension plans.

Despite relatively low incomes, 85% of both men and women felt that their incomes and investments satisfied their current needs adequately or very well. In fact, there was little evidence that older seniors lived beyond their means as 93% reported that their debts did not exceed $5,000.

Income seems to have little affect on older seniors' satisfaction with their lives. For example, those with personal incomes under $10,000 were as likely (45%) as those who had incomes of $40,000 and over to say they were very satisfied with their lives as a whole in 1990.

Health limits everyday activities Over one-third (38%) of those aged 75 and over were limited in the kind or amount of activity in which they could participate because of a long-term illness, physical condition or health problem. Among those with limitations, 43% said they could not walk three blocks.

A larger percentage of older senior women than men said they needed help because of an activity limitation. For example, 7% of women compared with 3% of men needed help to walk three blocks, while 17% of women and 13% of men were unable to walk that far even with help. Eight percent of women and 4% of men needed assistance going up or down stairs, while another 8% of women and 7% of men were unable to climb a flight of stairs.

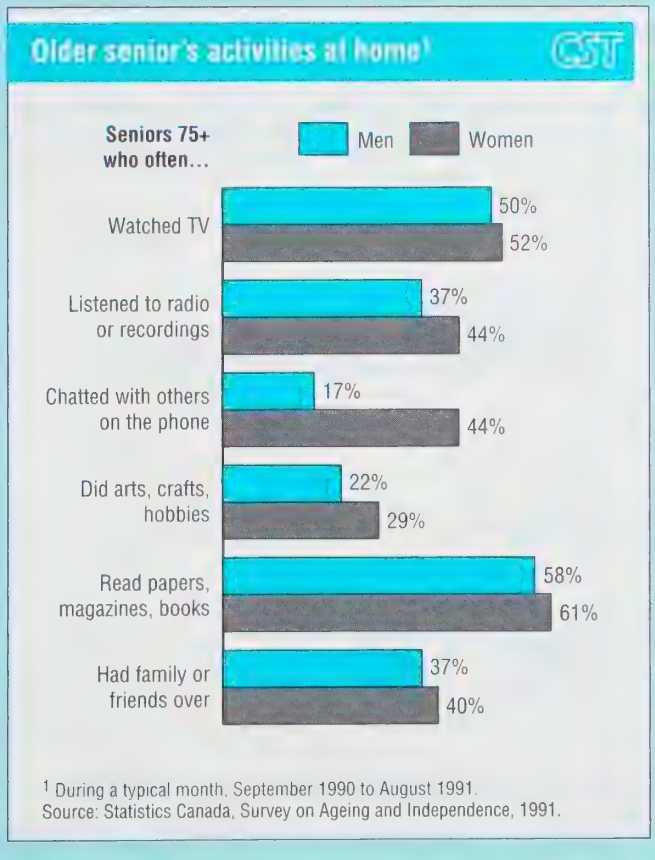
Among older seniors who reported limited activities because of their physical condition, 18% of women and 14% of men had a street-level entrance to their home, without steps. Fourteen percent of women and 7% of men said they had an elevator or lift device because of their condition. This included people living in apartments served by elevators.

Personal care activities were difficult for some older seniors, many of whom lacked the manual dexterity and flexibility of younger people. For example, 10% of women and 7% of men were so activity-limited they could not clip their own toenails without help. About 3% of both women and men needed help dressing or undressing.

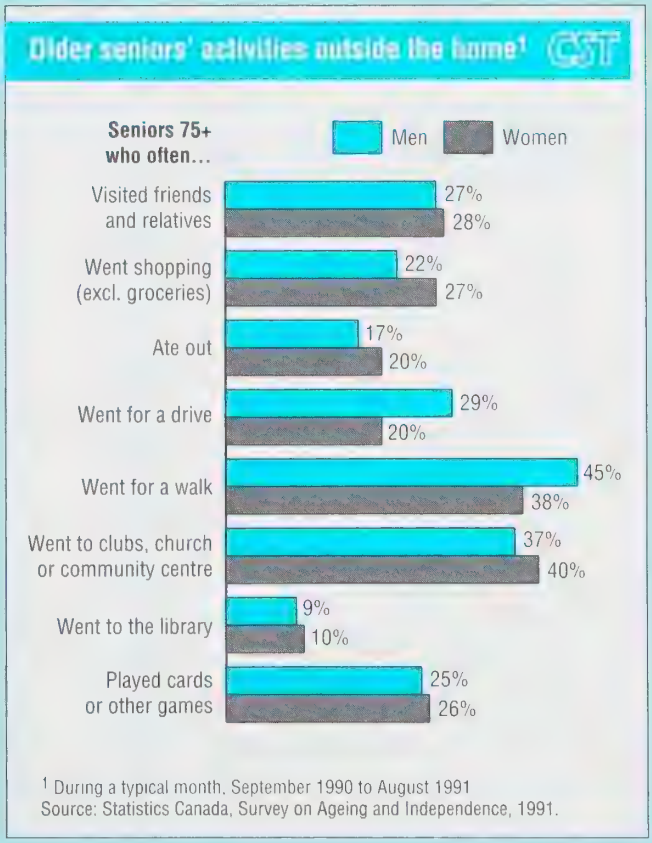
Satisfaction with life related to health Nearly two-thirds (65%) of older seniors living outside institutions who reported excellent health were very satisfied with their life as a whole. In contrast, only 25% of those in poor health were very satisfied.

Most older seniors said their life was relatively stress-free, with about one-half describing their life as not very stressful and 38% describing it as not at all stressful. In 1991, 43% of those who said their life was not very stressful and 29% of those who said their life was not at all stressful reported fair to poor health.

Ten percent of women aged 75 and over and 6% of men that age described their lives as very stressful. Of these people, 35% of women and 50% of men said health was the number one reason for their stress. Two-thirds of both women and men who described their lives as very stressful said they had only fair or poor health.



[1] During a typical month, September 1990 to August 1991.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey on Ageing and Independence, 1991.



[1] During a typical month, September 1990 to August 1991
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey on Ageing and Independence, 1991.

Older seniors gave and received help regularly Friends, family, neighbours and volunteer organizations all have their place in the social support networks of elderly people living in private households. While 67% of those aged 75 and over said they received help regularly, 59% regularly provided help to others. Housework, yardwork, meal preparation, grocery shopping, transportation, babysitting, money management, personal care and emotional support were all included as aspects of "help."

For the 75 and over age group overall, spouses were an important source of help: 35% of men and 14% of women received help from a spouse, while 41% of men and 14% of women provided help to a spouse. Among married people, 82% of men and 75% of women provided help to their spouse, while 81% of married men and 72% of married women received help from their spouse.

Men and women aged 75 and over were about equally likely to help family members. Twelve percent helped sons, 15% helped daughters, 12% helped grandchildren and 15% helped other relatives.

However, women were more likely than men to report help from every type of relative, with the most common source being daughters. Thirty percent of women aged 75 and over received help from a daughter, compared with 19% of men that age. Help from sons was received by 22% of women and 21% of men. Among older seniors, 12% of women and 8% of men were helped by grandchildren, while other family members helped 19% of women and 10% of men.

One-quarter (26%) of older seniors helped a friend or neighbour on a regular basis, while 21% received help. Men (15%) were much less likely than women (25%) to view themselves as having received help. This may be due to the higher average age of women aged 75 and over.

Older seniors in private households were more likely to volunteer their time to organizations than to receive services as clients. Men (16%) and women (15%) aged 75 and over volunteered at about the same rate. Only 6% of older senior men and 9% of women received help through a volunteer organization.

Two-thirds of women and a slightly smaller proportion of men (63%) said they had friends to whom they felt close. Almost half (45%) of elderly people with close friends said they lived in the same neighbourhood.

Reading and walking popular activities Older seniors spend their leisure time at home on activities such as watching television, listening to the radio, reading, or having family or friends over. Reading was the most common activity during a typical month, reported by about 60% of men and women.

Women aged 75 and over were only slightly more likely than men that age to pursue most at-home activities. They were more than twice as likely as men, however, to chat with others on the phone (44% compared with 17%).

Leisure activities outside the home were less common than those in the home. Still, 45% of men and 38% of women said they often went for a walk.

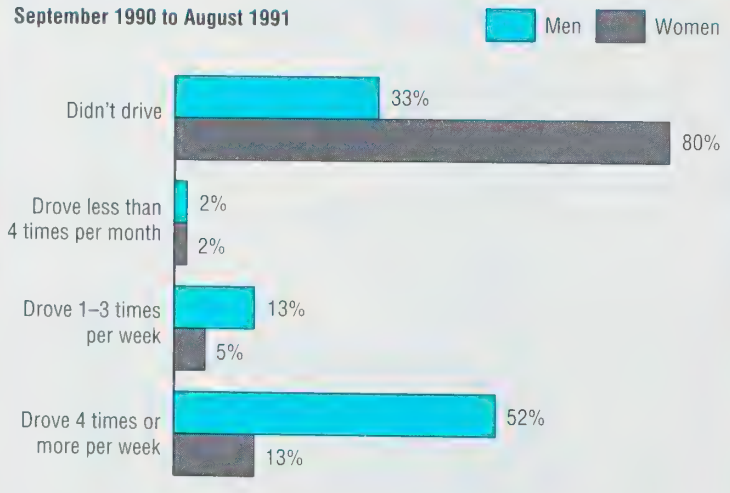
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Survey on Ageing and Independence

In 1991 Statistics Canada, in collaboration with Health and Welfare Canada, The Seniors Secretariat, Fitness and Amateur Sport, Consumer and Corporate Affairs, Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation, Veterans Affairs Canada, the Department of the Secretary of State and Communications Canada conducted the Survey on Ageing and Independence. The survey measured factors that contributed to the quality of life and independence of today's and tomorrow's seniors in Canada.

The survey covered people aged 45 and over. Excluded were residents of institutions, people living on Indian Reserves, members of the Armed Forces and residents of the Yukon and Northwest Territories.

Driving habits of older seniors[1]



[1] Includes seniors 75+ with or without licences, with or without vehicles.
Source: Statistics Canada, Survey on Ageing and Independence, 1991.

The next most popular activity outside the home was going to clubs, church or community centres, with 40% of women and 37% of men going often.

Generally, just over one-quarter of all older seniors often went for a drive, went to visit friends and went shopping. Men, however, were less avid shoppers (22% reported that they often went shopping) and women were less likely to go for a drive (20%).



Older seniors on the road Men aged 75 and over (69%) were much more likely than women that age (22%) to have a license. Nearly all of those with a license lived in households that owned or rented a vehicle.

Male drivers aged 75 and over with a household car or truck drove more frequently than did their female counterparts. Seventy-eight percent of men, compared with 64% of women, reported driving more than three times a week.

Only 5% of men with vehicles were passengers more often than they were drivers. On the other hand, 19% of licensed women were more often passengers than drivers.

More women (74%) than men (65%) said they had public transportation in their area. More than one-half (54%) of these women and 39% of these men used the public transit system in the previous year. Ridership could have been higher, especially for women, if those with public transportation in their area had been able to use it: 11% of the women and 5% of men had been unable to use the public transit system.

Seasoned travellers Many older seniors aged 75 and over enjoy travelling. About one-half (55% of men and 51% of women) reported at least one overnight trip away from their community in the previous year. Fourteen percent of men and 11% of women said they had been away four or more weeks. Two-thirds of men and about half (55%) of women who had been away four or more weeks travelled outside Canada. This amounted to an estimated 70,000 persons, equally divided between men and women. In comparison, only 40,000 people aged 75 and over said they took a trip of four weeks or longer inside Canada.

Many elderly who travel outside Canada for long periods of time are "snowbirds", leaving Canada during the winter for warmer climates. In 1991, 4% of older seniors were travelling outside Canada in February. Travel inside Canada was more likely to occur in summer, with 2% away from home during the peak month of July.

Nearly as happy as younger people Older seniors have more health problems and physical limitations than younger people, their incomes are lower and they are more likely to have lost a spouse. Nonetheless, based on a widely used scale of well-being,[2] more than half (60%) of the group could be described as happy. People aged 15-74 were only slightly more likely (67%) than older seniors to be rated as happy.

Not surprisingly, stress, health and physical limitation problems were associated with more negative feelings. Seventy-two percent of those with no stress in their lives had scores indicating positive feelings, while only 25% of those who described their life as very stressful had similar feelings. Similarly, those reporting excellent health were more likely to have scores indicating positive feelings (78%) than those reporting poor health (27%). Twenty percent of those with physical limitations had scores indicating negative feelings, compared with only 7% of those without physical limitations.

Three-quarters (76%) of people aged 75 and over with household incomes of $40,000 and over in 1990 had scores indicating positive feelings. Over one-half (56%) of those with incomes under $10,000 had scores in the happiness range, a figure comparable to that for older seniors as a whole.

Married people aged 75 and over were more likely to have positive feelings (65%) than those who were widowed (55%). Widows (57%), however, more often reported positive feelings than did widowers (49%).

[2] Based on the Bradburn scale of psychological well-being. See: Bradburn, N.M. **The structure of psychological well-being**. Chicago:Aldine, 1969. McDowell, I., and E. Praught. "On the measurement of happiness: an examination of the Bradburn scale in the Canada Health Survey." **American Journal of Epidemiology**, 1982; 116:949-58.

Sandrine Prasil is an analyst with the Household Surveys Division, Statistics Canada.

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Are Young People Farming?

by Chris O'Toole and Marc Prud'homme

The survival of many family farms may depend upon the ability of young farmers to adapt to a rapidly changing agricultural environment. Technological advances in machinery, chemicals and plant breeding have made today's farming less labour-intensive. Consequently, fewer farms, with a smaller agricultural labour force, are now producing historically high levels of output. Younger farmers have generally been the catalyst for this more efficient approach to agriculture. At the turn of the century, farmers required mainly a good understanding of agronomy to succeed. To remain competitive today, however, farmers must also understand principles of finance and management and be proficient users of the latest production methods.

The 1980s were difficult for many Canadian farmers. During this period, commodity prices were depressed, debt loads increased and interest rates rose. In addition, parts of the country were plagued by severe drought. The financial strains brought on by these events have taken their toll on farming communities. This has fostered the view that younger people do not perceive agriculture as a desirable career. The loss of young farmers could impede the application of new agricultural technologies and have a negative impact on rural development.

According to the Census of Agriculture, young farmers accounted for a decreasing proportion of all farmers during the last decade. However, comparing Revenue Canada taxation statistics from the 1960s to the 1990s, there is now a higher proportion of young farmers among those whose major source of income is agriculture. In addition, women represent an increasing share of these young farmers. Still, farmers tend to be older than non-farm business proprietors.

Operators of census farms The 1991 Census of Agriculture defined a farm operator as someone running a farming operation with annual sales of agricultural products of at least $250. Based

on this definition, the number of operators has declined in the past fifty years. In 1991, there were 277,330 farmers,[1] down from a high of 732,800 in 1941.

According to the Census of Agriculture, young farmers accounted for a decreasing share of all farm operators since the early 1980s. Of all farmers in 1991, 16% were under age 35, down from 21% in 1981. Over the same period, the proportion of farmers aged 60 and over increased to 25% from 19%. Farmers aged 35-59 represented about 60% of all farmers in both years. As a result of these shifts in the age distribution, the average age of farmers increased to 49.1 in 1991 from 46.9 in 1981.

The recent decline in the proportion of young farmers is not necessarily indicative of a long-term trend. Throughout the century, there have been several short-term fluctuations in the proportion of young farmers. For example, the proportion of farmers under age 35 declined during the period 1921 to 1931, reflecting the stabilization of the number of young immigrants to rural Western Canada. Young farmers accounted for an increasing share of all farmers between 1941 and 1951, partly as a result of young veterans returning to farming after World War II. Following that period, the share of young farmers declined. However, between 1971 and 1981, the proportion of farmers under age 35 rose again. During that decade, farming attracted many young people because of the possible financial returns from highly-priced agricultural products. Despite these events, the proportion of farmers under age 35 has remained in the mid-to-high teens throughout most of the century.

Tax filers whose main source of income is farming Revenue Canada defines farmers differently than does the Census of Agriculture. According to Revenue Canada, a farmer is a tax filer whose major source of gross income (more than 50%) is from (unincorporated) self-employed farming. Thus, partners, such as spouses and children, are considered farmers by Revenue Canada if their farm income is greater than their non-farm income. Prior to 1991, the Census of Agriculture recorded only one operator per farm, and therefore, did not count partners as farm operators. Differences between the two definitions result in a disparity in the number and age distribution of farmers.

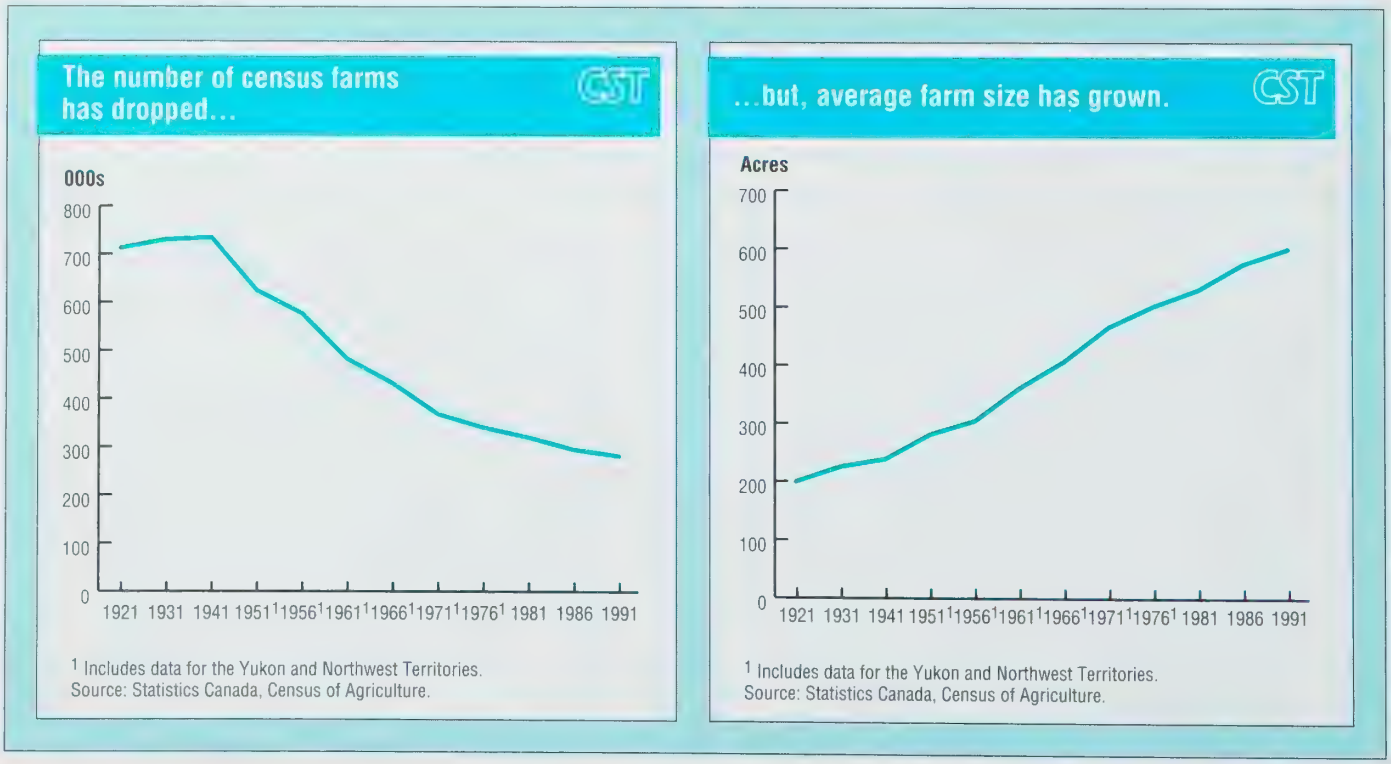
The proportion of young farmers whose major source of income is from self-employed farming is higher now than during the 1960s. According to Revenue Canada taxation statistics, between 1981 and 1990, about one-quarter of farmers were under age 35. The proportion of younger farmers was much lower in the 1960s. During this time, those under age 35 never accounted for more than 18% of all farmers. Favourable conditions in agriculture during the 1970s resulted in an increasing share of younger farmers during this period. By 1980, their share had reached a 20-year-high of 28%, up from 18% in 1971.

From 1987 to 1990, farmers aged 60 and over represented 24% of all farmers. Despite a declining proportion in the late 1970s and early 1980s, their share was the same in the late 1980s as it was in the 1960s.

The proportion of farmers aged 35-59 has declined steadily since 1970 when it reached a high of 60%. In 1990 farmers aged 35-59 accounted for 53% of all farmers.

Tax filers with some farm income The number of tax filers reporting at least some farm income increased to 423,240 in 1990 from 365,320 in 1971. The age distribution of these tax filers remained fairly constant over the two decades. However, from 1987 to 1990, the proportion of farmers in this group aged 60 and over was higher than that of farmers

[1] For comparability, 1991 Census figures include only the number one farm operator, although more than one could be reported that year.



under age 35. The last time this occurred was in 1975.

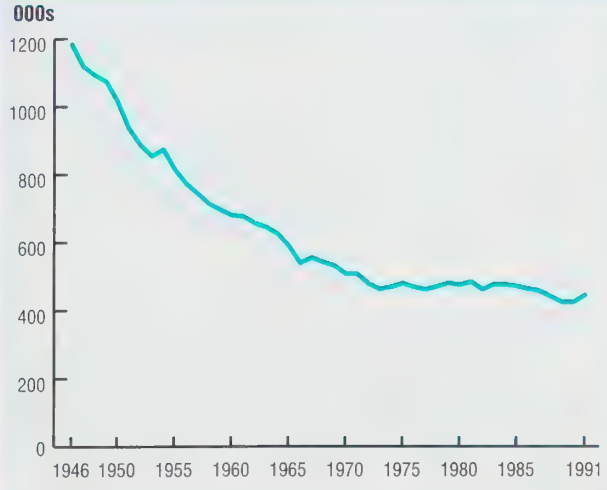
The increase in the number of tax filers receiving at least some farm income is mainly due to an increase among those receiving less than 50% of their total income from farming. The number of farmers in this group increased to 184,010 in 1990 from 70,180 in 1971. In addition, the age distribution of these tax filers remained fairly constant over the same period.

Female farmers In 1991, for the first time, more than one operator per farm could be recorded in the Census of Agriculture. Previously, the reporting operator was usually male. As a result, the role of women in agriculture was underrepresented. Between 1971 and 1986, about 4% of farm operators were women. In 1991 the proportion jumped to 25%.

According to Revenue Canada taxation statistics, the proportion of female farmers increased over the last three decades. Women represented 19% of tax filers reporting farming as their major income source in 1990, up from 6% in 1963. Most of the increase was among female farmers under age 60. The proportion of women farmers under age 35 increased to 25% in 1990 from 3% in 1963. During the same time, those aged 35-59 increased their share to 56%, from 34%.

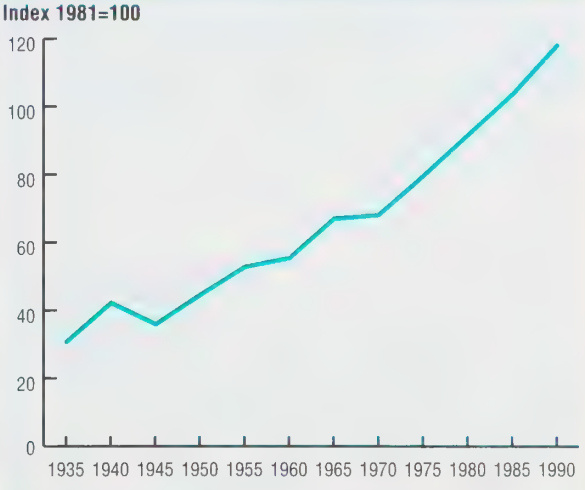


The agricultural labour force has declined...



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

...however, agricultural production has increased.



Source: Statistics Canada, Agriculture Division, unpublished data.

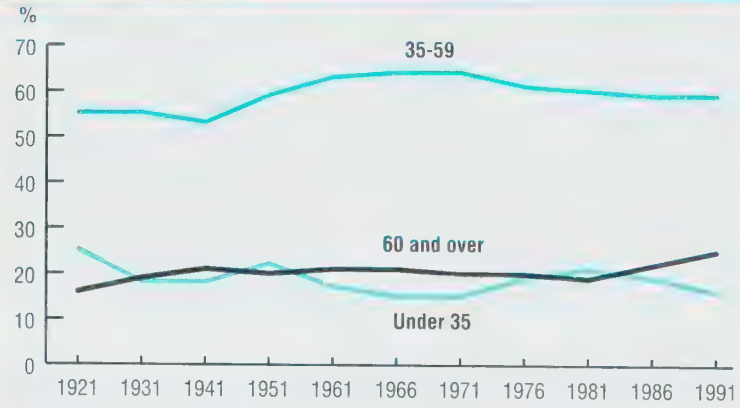
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

The Census of Agriculture

The Census of Agriculture produces a profile of Canadian agriculture by providing statistics on topics, such as crop areas, number of livestock, weeks of farm labour, number and value of farm machinery, farm expenses and receipts, and land management practices.

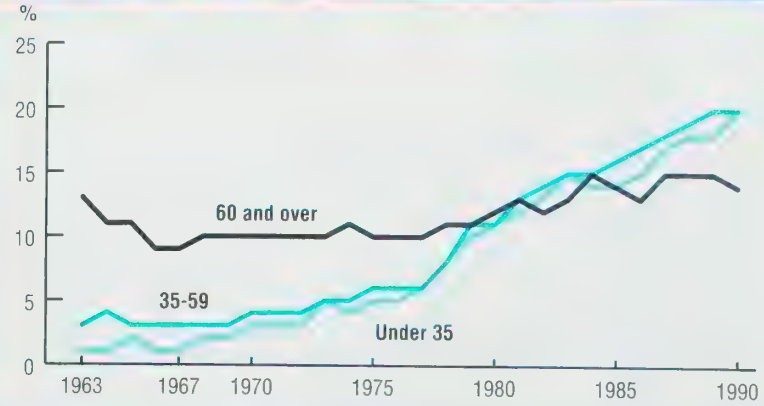
Provisions were made under the *British North America (BNA) Act* of 1867 for a census to be taken every ten years starting in 1871. However, to monitor rapid growth in Western Canada during the turn of the century, the Census of Agriculture was taken every five years in Manitoba starting in 1896, and in Alberta and Saskatchewan beginning in 1906. By 1956 rapid economic growth and development created the need for national agricultural information at more frequent intervals. To meet this need, the five-year Census of Agriculture was extended to the entire country.

Age distribution of census farmers,[1] 1921-1991



[1] Someone operating a farming operation with annual sales of agricultural products of at least $250.
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Agriculture.

Female farmers as a percentage of all farmers, by age group, 1963-1990



Source: Revenue Canada, Taxation Statistics.

Conversely, the share of those aged 60 and over decreased from 55% to 18%.

From 1977 to 1978, there was a sudden increase in the proportion of female farmers under age 35 (up 59%) and those aged 35-59 (up 68%). A legal precedent appears to have had an impact on the number of women formally involved in agriculture. Four highly publicized court cases in the mid-1970s concerned the rights of women in the farming operation. These cases may have contributed to an increase in women forming business partnerships with their husbands to ensure that the value of their labour was legally recorded.

Comparison with business operators

More and more, family farms are looking like non-farm businesses. The resemblances are found in the capital outlays, the division of labour and management and the use of advanced technology. However, there are certain differences in the age distribution of farmers (with farming as the major source of income) and non-farm business operators (with business as the major source of income).

The proportion of young non-farm business proprietors almost doubled over the last three decades, to 32% in 1990 from 17% in 1963. Over the same period, the proportion aged 35-59 rose slightly to 60% from 54%. Older non-farm business proprietors represented 9% of the total in 1990, the lowest proportion since 1963.

Since 1978 the average incomes of farmers have been higher than those of non-farm business operators, ranging from 1% higher in 1978 to 26% higher in 1981. In 1990 the average income of farmers was 6% higher than that of non-farm business proprietors ($18,012 compared with $16,957). The average income of young farmers, however, equalled that of young non-farm business proprietors that year.

Chris O'Toole is an analyst with Farm Finance and Stabilization Division, Agriculture Canada and **Marc Prud'homme** is an analyst with *Canadian Social Trends*.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,909.2	26,240.3	26,610.4	27,004.4 PD	27,402.2 PR
Annual growth (%)	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5 PD	1.5 PR
Immigration[1]	84,062	88,051	125,696	152,285	174,495	199,527	221,798	236,723 R
Emigration[1]	46,252	44,816	51,040	40,528	37,437	39,650	39,201	42,503 PR
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	15.3	14.9	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.1	6.4	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	2.9	2.8	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	990	915	872	789	776	841	1,046	1,132
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572	12,340	12,240
– goods sector (000s)	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626	3,423	3,307
– service sector (000s)	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946	8,917	8,933
Total unemployment (000s)	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109	1,417	1,556
Unemployment rate (%)	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.3	11.3
Part-time employment (%)	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4	16.4	16.8
Women's participation rate (%)	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4	58.2	57.6
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	34.1	34.7	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	46,069	46,742	*
% of families with low income (1986 Base)	14.3	13.6	13.1	12.2	11.1	12.1	13.1	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	67.6	69.6	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,074.4	5,141.0	5,221.1 P	5,287.7 e
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.9	832.3	856.5	890.5 P	921.3 e
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,672	2,947	3,140 P
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.5	*	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease – men	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	37.3	37.1	*
– women	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	41.2	41.0	*
% of deaths due to cancer – men	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	27.8	28.1	*
– women	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	26.8	27.0	*
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	*	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	749	808	856	898	948	1,013	1,099	*
– property	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,844	6,395	*
– homicide	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	3.0	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1990 $000,000)	155,990.6	157,737.2	160,670.7	164,293.2	170,125.0	175,640.0	*	*
– as a % of total expenditures	55.8	56.4	56.1	56.2	56.2	56.7	*	*
– as a % of GDP	26.2	26.1	25.5	24.7	25.0	26.3	*	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) – annual % change	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+5.0	+2.3	-0.5	-1.7	+0.9
Annual inflation rate (%)	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5
Urban housing starts	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126

– Not available * Not yet available P Preliminary data e Estimate m Figures as of March
PD Final postcensal estimates (1987-1992 population estimates are still based on 1986 census counts)
PR Updated postcensal estimates R Updated data
[1]For year ending May 31st
[2]Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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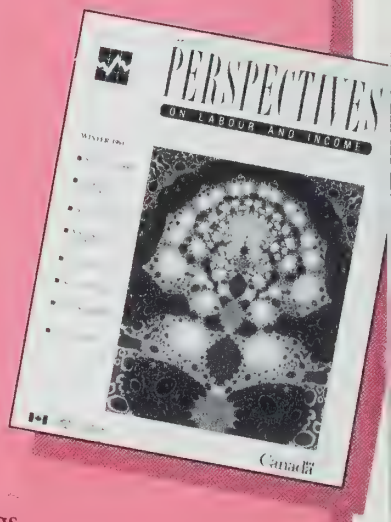
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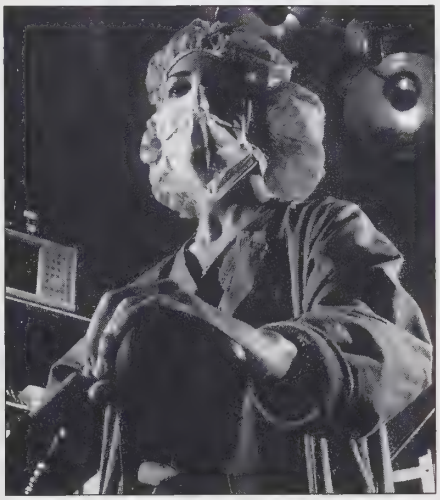
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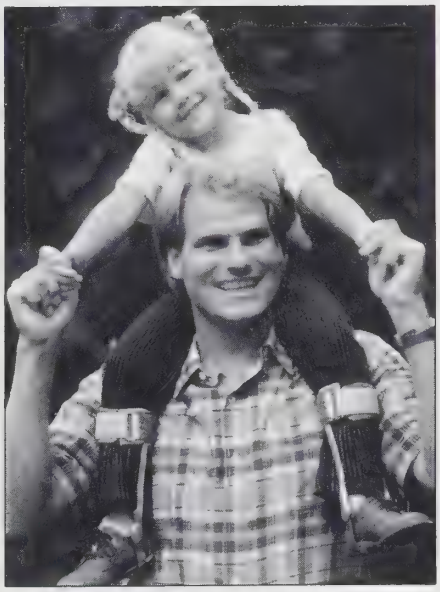
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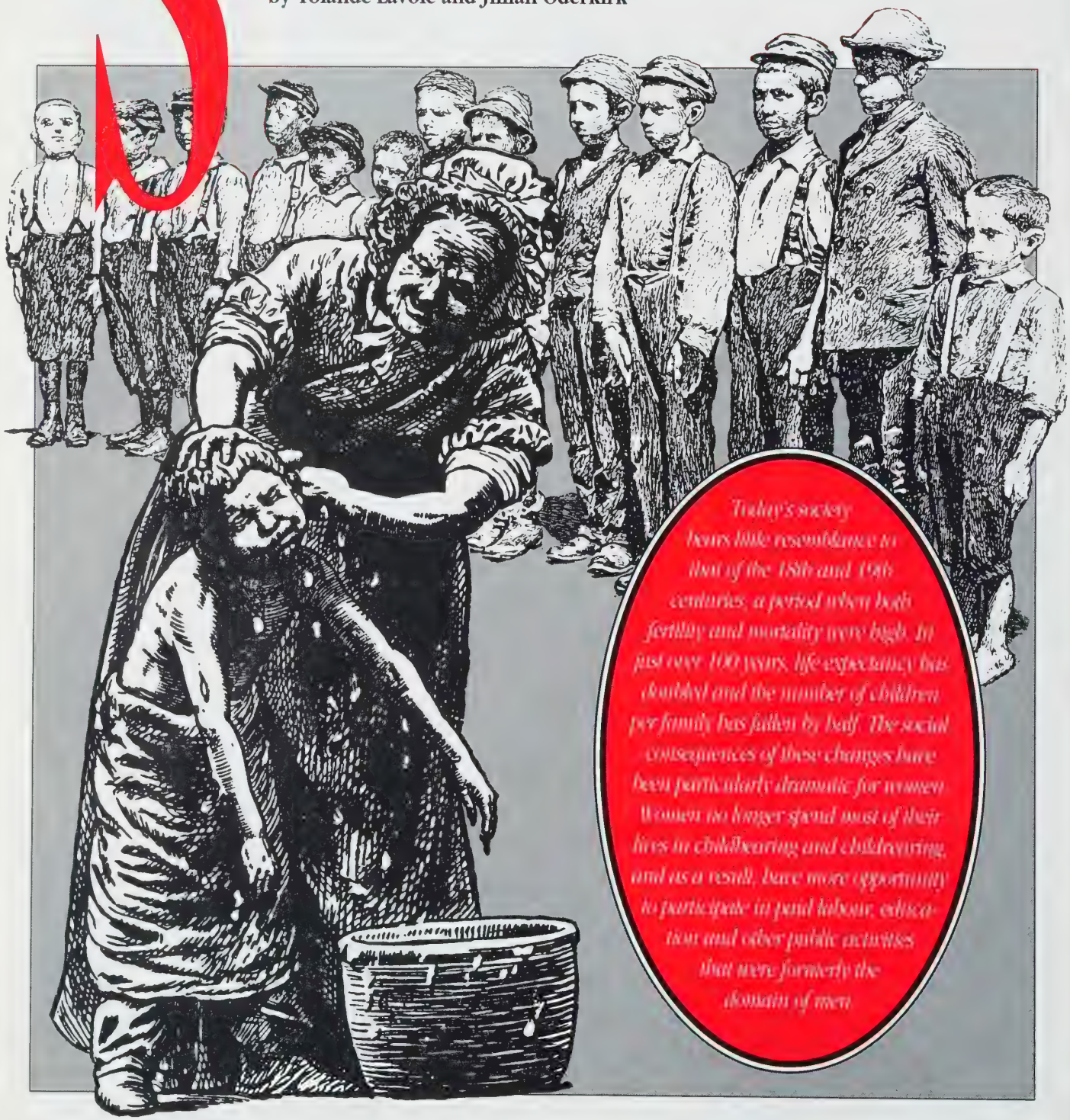
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Social Consequences of Demographic Change

by Yolande Lavoie and Jillian Oderkirk



Today's society bears little resemblance to that of the 18th and 19th centuries, a period when both fertility and mortality were high. In just over 100 years, life expectancy has doubled and the number of children per family has fallen by half. The social consequences of these changes have been particularly dramatic for women. Women no longer spend most of their lives in childbearing and childrearing, and as a result, have more opportunity to participate in paid labour, education and other public activities that were formerly the domain of men.

In the 18th century, the labour force was composed mainly of young adult males who could expect to work for about two decades. Today, in contrast, the labour force consists of an aging population of not only men but also of women, whose working lives are twice as long as those of their ancestors. Many new challenges accompany this increase in working life. For example, few workers can expect to work with the same skill set, perform the same job or even remain in the same field during their entire career. To cope with the likelihood of change, most are expected to participate in education and training programs throughout their lives.

From many early deaths to universal access to old age The lives of pioneers born in 1700 were very short, averaging only 30 to 35 years. Factors such as poor hygiene, infectious diseases, inadequate diet and limited means to control fertility lead to very high mortality rates. Four generations later, men born in 1831 lived an average of 40 years and women, 42 years. Although this was an improvement from the 1700s, infantile infectious diseases (scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles and others) and epidemics of cholera (1832), typhus (1846-1849), and smallpox (1885-1886), among others, were still taking the lives of many people.

During the next four generations, however, a spectacular increase in life expectancy occurred. From the 1831 cohort to the 1951 one, the average length of life almost doubled and the two-year survival advantage of women over men increased to eight years. For those born in 1951, life expectancy is 72 years for men and 80 years for women.

Increased opportunity to become a mother... The vast majority of women today have the opportunity to become a mother. In contrast, only about half of women born in the late 18th and 19th centuries had this chance. This is because many did not survive to reach puberty and many others died during their reproductive years. The period from age 15 to age 50 is considered by demographers to be the reproductive period of women's lives.

Just 667 of every 1,000 girls born in 1700 lived to reach age 15. By 1861, chances of survival had not increased very much, with only 691 of every 1,000 girls reaching that age. Improvements in the life expectancy of young women did not occur until the 20th century. For every 1,000 women, 874 of those born in 1921 survived to age 15, compared with 956 of those born in 1951. Less than one-half of all women born in the late 18th or early 19th centuries lived to age 50, whereas few Canadian women born around 1950 will die before reaching their 50th birthday.

...but lower fertility If every 1,000 women born in the early 18th century had survived to the end of their reproductive life, they would have given birth to 8,200 children, according to the reproductive behaviour prevalent at that time. This represents a lifetime fertility of slightly more than eight children per woman. However, since the majority of women from that period did not survive to age 50, every 1,000 women born in 1700 bore only 4,300 children instead of 8,200.

By the 20th century, however, women's fertility had decreased substantially. Although the vast majority of women born in 1951 will live to age 50, they are expected to give birth to only 1,800 children for every 1,000 women, less than two per woman.

The population is replaced when each woman in the present generation is replaced by at least one daughter in the next. This daughter-to-mother ratio is called the net reproduction rate. In the 18th century, there were 2,100 daughters to replace 1,000 foremothers. With this reproduction rate the population doubled in 30 years. However, for every 1,000 women in the 1951 cohort, only 900 daughters are expected to be born, less

Female and male survivors at different ages, Canada, 1700 and 1831 to 1951 CST

Age	Survivors per 1,000 females born in...					
	1700	1831	1861	1891	1921[1]	1951[1]
1 year	789	838	834	856	923	966
15 years	667	681	691	744	874	956
20 years	634	659	672	731	868	953
45 years	405	519	552	645	834	935
50 years	365	490	527	627	820	928
60 years	267	412	458	572	775	899
70 years	155	286	347	475	690	834
80 years	53	122	178	311	537	676
90 years	3	16	35	101	274	327

Age	Survivors per 1,000 males born in...					
	1700	1831	1861	1891	1921[1]	1951[1]
1 year	789	814	811	835	907	958
15 years	667	666	674	724	856	944
20 years	634	646	656	710	847	937
45 years	405	502	531	624	798	901
50 years	365	466	500	603	775	889
60 years	267	371	414	527	695	833
70 years	155	237	295	389	549	704
80 years	53	89	137	198	329	462
90 years	3	10	22	43	108	147

[1] Survival projected for ages 40 and over.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-209E.



than the rate necessary to ensure replacement of the population.

Women's lives no longer devoted to childbearing In the late 18th and early 19th centuries, women's lives were devoted to motherhood. Canadian women born during this time, on average, married at age 22 and if they lived to age 50, bore about 10 children. Their first pregnancies usually occurred a few months after marriage and last pregnancies around age 40. At that age, these women had exhausted, on average, 70% of their expected years of life. For many, responsibilities associated with raising young children continued until their lives ended.

In sharp contrast to their foremothers, women in their early forties today are expected to have half of their lives still ahead of them. In addition, the creation of couples is not as closely linked to reproduction as it was in the past, because the development and use of reliable contraceptive methods during the 20th century have enabled women and men to plan pregnancies. Couples may also choose to remain childless. As a result, women born in 1951 are expected to devote about two years of their lives to pregnancy and early infant care. Therefore, even after this period is subtracted from women's lives, because women generally live longer than men, they are expected to have the same number of years potentially available for public activities, such as paid work, as do men.

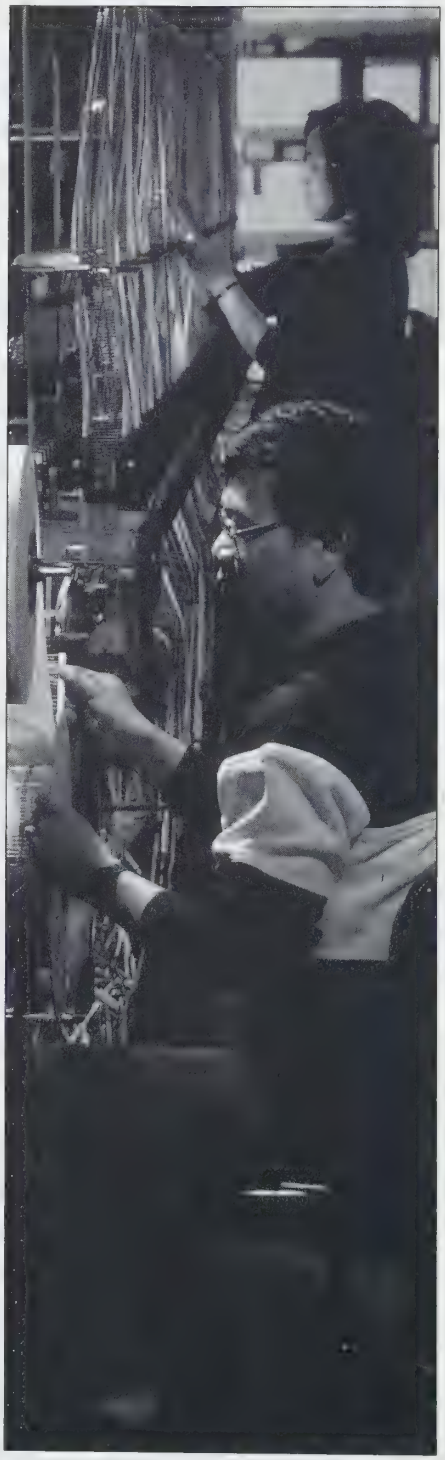
More women with paid work As the amount of time women had available for activities other than childbearing increased, so did their labour force participation. By 1961, the participation rate for women had grown to 30%, double the rate in 1901. During this period, however, it was mostly single women who were entering the labour force. Today, women's participation is much more pronounced and marital status does not have such a strong influence. In 1991, 77% of married women and 84% of single women aged 25-44 were participating.

The presence of children also does not restrict participation significantly. While mothers of very young children were less likely than mothers of older children to be in the labour market, the majority were still participating. In 1991, 62% of mothers with children under age 3, 68% of mothers with children aged 3-5 and 76% of mothers with children aged 6-15 were in the paid labour force.

Changing professional patterns The vast increase in the length of working life from the 18th to the 20th century combined with the increase in women's participation in public life have changed occupational patterns for both men and women. These changes present challenges which will likely lead to increased demands for training opportunities and flexibility in the workplace.

In the past, the labour force was not only primarily male but, because of its demography, was also young. During the second half of the 18th century, 7 out of 10 men aged 15-65 were aged 40 or less. Because of high mortality rates, those born in the 18th century could expect to work for only 23 years on average, between ages 15 and 65.

Today, workers born in the 1950s can expect to work for 40 years before retirement. During such long careers, changes within the economy and industry may force many workers to upgrade their skills, switch jobs or even change vocations. Also, mature workers will dominate the labour force in Canada as early as the second decade of the next century. As a



result, there will be many workers competing for jobs at the top of organizational hierarchies.

In addition to the challenges associated with an aging labour force, women encounter gender-based biases in the workplace. In spite of some progress, such as an increasing acceptance of employment equity and a shift toward more equal sharing of parental responsibilities, many social mechanisms are not yet fully adapted to the reality that women have a permanent place in public life. For example, many women still encounter difficulty in obtaining parental leave, face job uncertainty after maternity leave and pay inequities between men and women.

Increasing uncertainty and competition in the workplace, for both men and women, are expected to result in greater demand for education and training programs. This may actually increase the relative importance of the educational system despite significant shrinking of the population of children and young adults.

Conclusion Increased longevity and controlled fertility are slowly changing traditional social hierarchies, within the family, workplace and community. In the 18th and 19th centuries, roles for both men and women, in the home and the public domain, were well defined. In addition, most of the population was young and those who were able to survive to older ages assumed positions of authority by virtue of their years of experience. The distribution of the population at that time, a pyramid with many young people at the bottom and fewer senior people at the top, corresponded to the hierarchical structure of most organizations.

Today, however, living to become a senior citizen is no longer limited to a select few. The population of older Canadians is growing relative to the size of younger age groups which are shrinking. This change in the age structure of the population expands the traditional pool for recruitment to the top levels of organizational hierarchies and substantially reduces the base. As a result, competition from both men and women for a limited number of positions of authority within social hierarchies, including those in the family, workplace and community, will likely increase.

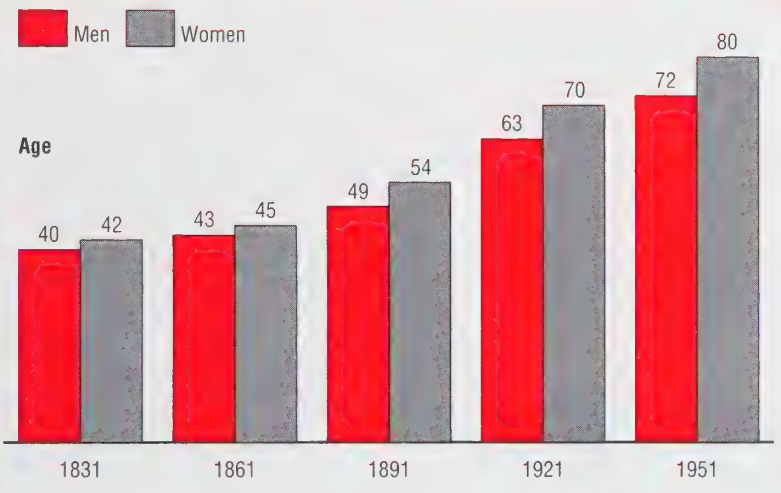
Shifts in the demographic structure of society, however, cause social and economic change as much as they result from it. Totally unexpected situations often occur because as members of the population change over time, so do attitudes, beliefs and behaviours. Consequently, the future course of society can only be speculated upon by those who will be participants in roles they have not yet learned.

Yolande Lavoie is an independent consultant in demography and **Jillian Oderkirk** is an Editor of **Canadian Social Trends.**

- For more information consult Lavoie, Yolande, "Structure in Transition: Two Centuries of Demographic Change", in **Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada, 1992**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-209E.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Life expectancy at birth, 1831-1951 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-209E.

Women's reproductive life, Canada, 1700 and 1831 to 1951 CST

	Year of birth					
	1700	**1831**	**1861**	**1891**	**1921**	**1951**
Percentage born who reproduced	53%	52%	49%	58%	73%	82%
Average number of years lived during reproductive life[1]	18.3	20.6	21.4	24.1	29.8	33.1
Net number of children per woman	4.3	3.9	3.0	2.5	2.7	1.8
Net reproduction rate	2.1	1.9	1.5	1.2	1.3	0.9

[1] Ages 15 to 50.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-209E.

TEMPUS FUGIT

Are you time crunched?

by Judith Frederick

"I'm late, I'm late,
for a very important date.
No time to say 'hello',
'goodbye', I'm late,
I'm late, I'm late!"

The White Rabbit in Walt Disney's,
Alice in Wonderland
based on the book by Lewis Carol



Many Canadians share the harried life of the White Rabbit. Do you? If you agree with four or more of the statements below, consider yourself time crunched and in the company of almost one-half (45%) of Canadians aged 15 and over. If you agree with seven or more of the statements, you, together with about 15% of all adult Canadians, are likely experiencing very high levels of time-crunch stress. While a certain amount of stress is good for you, too much can play havoc with your health.

% of Canadians aged 15 and over who agree with the statement

	Total	Men	Women
❑ **1.** I plan to slow down in the coming year.	21	19	22
❑ **2.** I consider myself a workaholic.	25	26	25
❑ **3.** When I need more time, I tend to cut back on my sleep.	44	45	43
❑ **4.** At the end of the day, I often feel that I have not accomplished what I had set out to do.	46	44	48
❑ **5.** I worry that I don't spend enough time with my family and friends.	32	33	32
❑ **6.** I feel that I'm constantly under stress trying to accomplish more than I can handle.	33	31	35
❑ **7.** I feel trapped in a daily routine.	34	32	37
❑ **8.** I feel that I just don't have time for fun any more.	28	25	31
❑ **9.** I often feel under stress when I don't have enough time.	45	41	48
❑ **10.** I would like to spend more time alone.	22	19	26

Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.

According to the 1992 General Social Survey (GSS), a significant proportion of Canadians experience some degree of time-crunch stress. Role complexity, or the number of hats you have to wear, adds to these feelings of stress. Therefore, it is not surprising that dual-income parents of young children, especially mothers, who are juggling their work, family and personal responsibilities are the most susceptible to feeling time crunched. On the other hand, seniors, many of whom have finished raising their children and/or are retired from the labour force, are the least likely to feel time pressured. With ever-increasing numbers of women entering the paid labour market, the number of Canadians feeling time crunched will not likely diminish in the near future.

Time stressors People feel the pressure of lack of time and cope with it in different ways. For example, nearly 45% of adults reported that they cut back on their sleep when they needed more time for other activities. A similar proportion reported they frequently felt they were not accomplishing what they set out to do, or often felt under stress when they had insufficient time. About one-third felt trapped in a daily routine, constantly under stress by trying to do more than they could handle, or worried that they were not spending enough time with family and friends. As well, about one-quarter felt that they had no time for fun, considered themselves workaholics, or admitted they would like to spend more time alone. Generally, women were more likely than men to feel these pressures. Yet, despite the relatively high proportion of adults feeling time pressured, only one-in-five were planning to slow down in the near future.

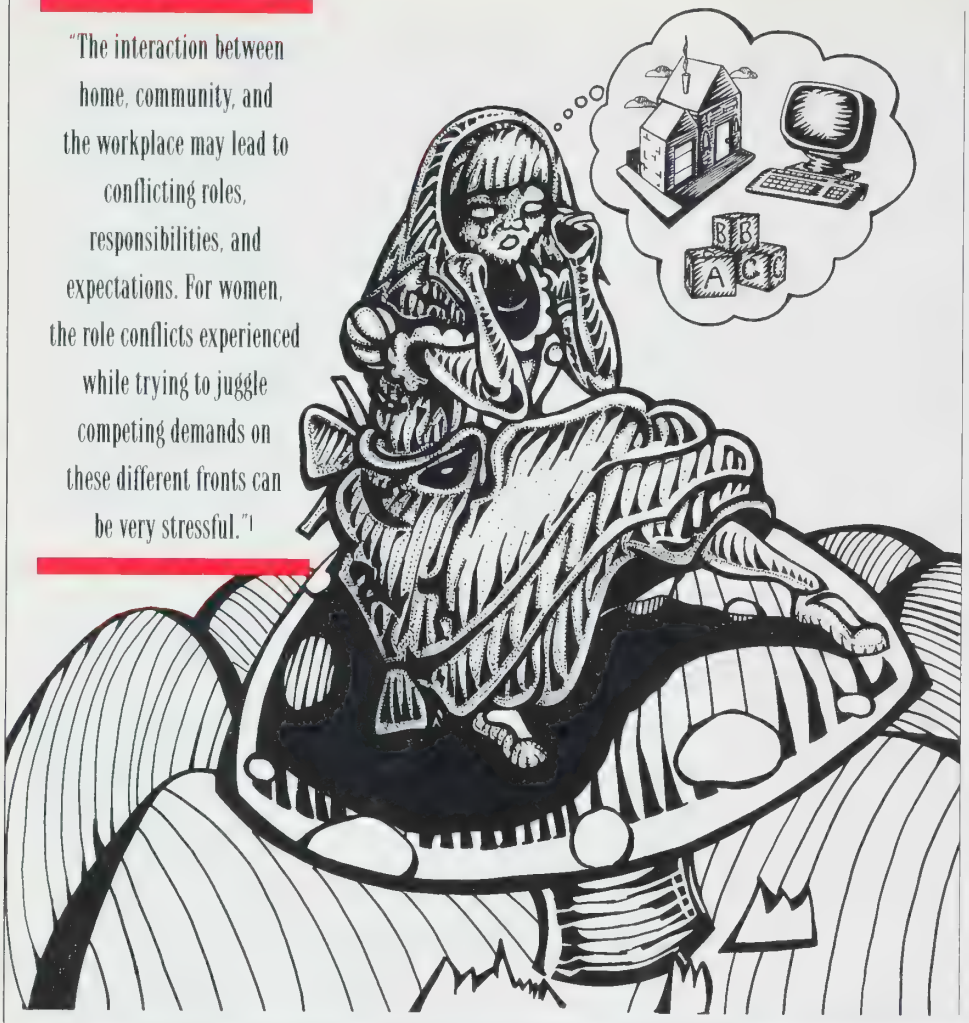
More time-crunch stress among women than men Women appear to be consistently more time stressed than men, regardless of age or stage in life. About 45% of women and 41% of men agreed with four or more time crunch statements, indicating some degree of time stress. Similarly, 16% of women and 12% of men concurred with at least seven statements, making them severely time crunched.

Time-crunch stress varies considerably by age, which is some indication of life-cycle stage. It is highest for those aged 25-44 in their prime childbearing and childrearing years. About 53% of these adults are time crunched, with 19% reporting severe time-crunch stress. The demands ease somewhat for people aged 45-54 but the proportion of frenzied adults only drops markedly at age 55. While this trend likely reflects the easing of both work and family demands, it may also be an indication of changing values as people age.

Mothers with infants most time stressed People's main activity, or what they spend most of their day doing, significantly affects the proportion who feel the pressure of lack of time. Surprisingly to some, mothers on maternity leave reported feeling exceptionally stressed for time. Having to meet the unrelenting demands of a new baby left 72% stressed for time, with nearly 25% feeling severely time crunched.

While an equal proportion of the employed and students (each 52%) were time crunched, slightly more of the employed (18%) than of students (14%) were severely time crunched. The time-crunch profile of people keeping house and those looking for work were similar. Close to 40% of each group admitted to feeling

"The interaction between home, community, and the workplace may lead to conflicting roles, responsibilities, and expectations. For women, the role conflicts experienced while trying to juggle competing demands on these different fronts can be very stressful."[1]



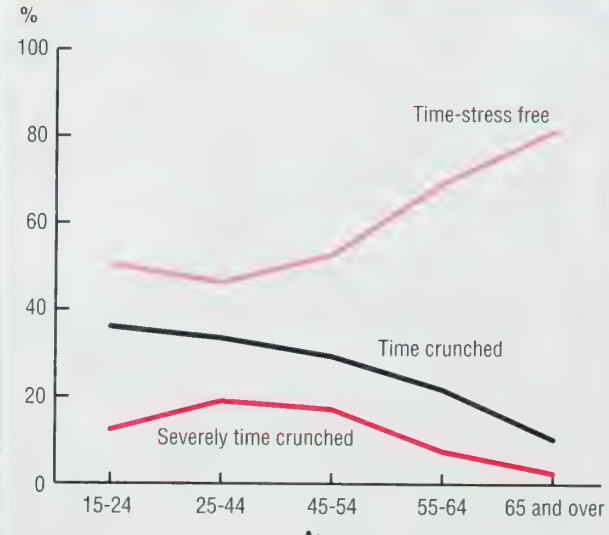
time crunched, with around 11% severely so. Most retired people were virtually time-stress free: only about 14% reported feeling time crunched.

Attachment to the labour force appears to add to the feeling of being time crunched. Proportionately more people working full-time (52%) and students with a job (55%) felt time crunched than did part-time workers (46%) or students without a job (50%). Individuals not in the labour force have the most control over their use of time. This is reflected in the lower proportion (28%) reporting time-crunch stress.

Balancing work and family Dual-earner couples working full-time are among the most time-crunched members of Canadian society. About 57% of these couples reported feeling time crunched, while 22% were severely time crunched. However, there is a striking difference in time stress levels between men and women in these relationships. Over 28% of women employed full-time and in dual-earner families were severely time crunched, in contrast to less than 16% of their male counterparts.

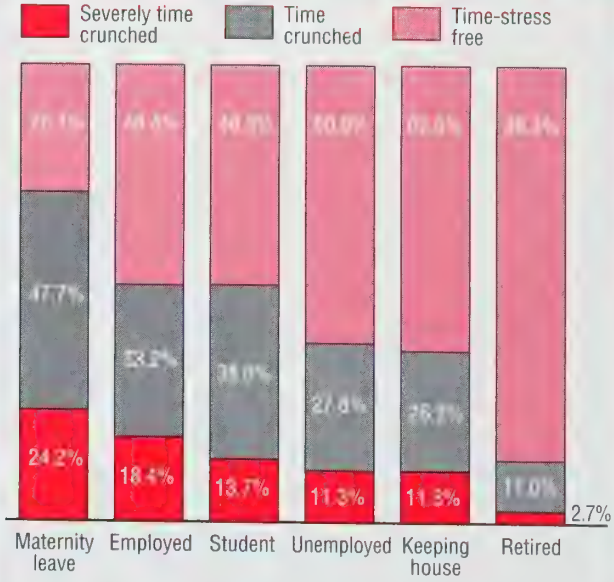
The presence of young children contributes to feelings of time-crunch stress among women, but not among men.

Percentage of Canadians affected by time-crunch stress, 1992



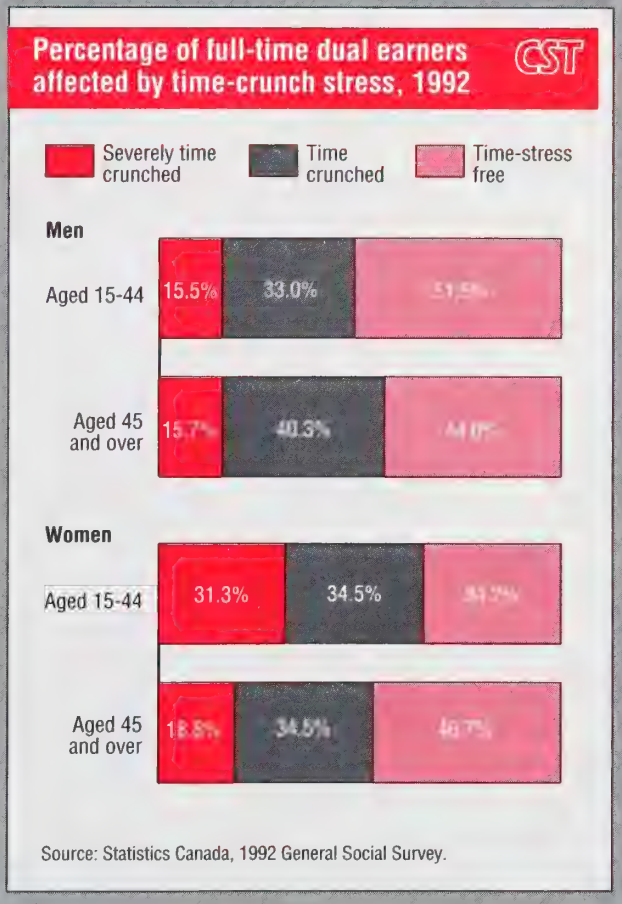
Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.

Time-crunch stress, by main activity, 1992



Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.





Among women employed full-time and in dual-earner families, 34% whose youngest child was under age 10 were severely time crunched, compared with 25% with only older children or without children. In contrast, similar proportions of men working full-time whose youngest child was under age 10 (16%) and other men in dual-earner families (15%) were highly stressed for time.

Similar proportions of women (53%) and men (56%) aged 45 and over in dual-earner families and working full-time experienced time stress. In contrast, women under age 45 (66%) were considerably more likely than men that age (48%) to feel time crunched. These younger women (31%) were twice as likely as their male counterparts (15%) to be severely time crunched.

One of the most likely explanations for these differences is that, even in dual-earner families where both partners are working full-time, women are still primarily responsible for children and housework. These demands ease as children mature and ultimately leave home, resulting in less time-crunch stress for older full-time employed women in dual-earner families.

Finding a balance Creative solutions within both the family and workplace would likely alleviate time-crunch stress among Canadians, many of whom are trying to balance work and family responsibilities, with little time left for individual pursuits. In dual-earner families, for example, especially those with young children, sharing of household responsibilities and child care is essential to easing time-crunch stress.[2]

Potential employer assistance to ease this stress lies in more flexible working hours, job sharing, portable computers and other technology to allow more work-at-home arrangements, family leave, counselling services, organizational workshops, and day care benefits and/or on-site child care. Already, many of these ideas are being implemented to make the workplace "family-friendly," to use the current jargon. Employers wanting to attract and keep qualified employees, and enhance productivity and morale, will likely continue to feel pressure to provide a more flexible working environment.

[1] Lowe, Graham S., **Women, Paid/unpaid Work, and Stress: New Directions for Research**, Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, March 1989.

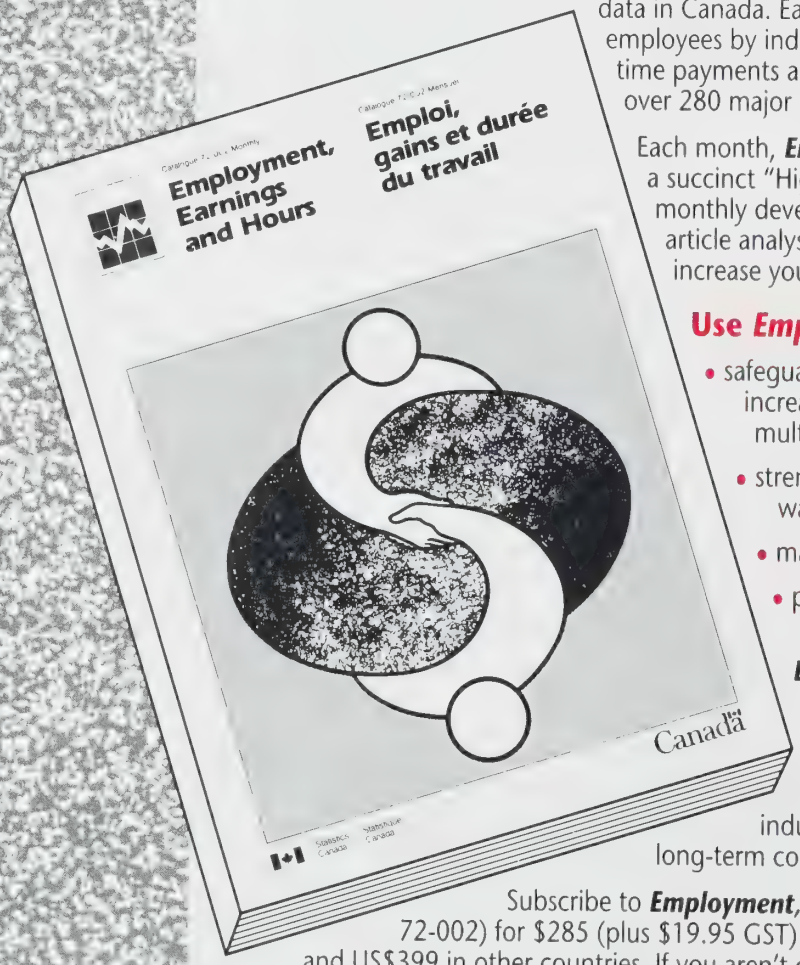
[2] Duxbury, Dr. Linda, Dr. Catherine Lee, Dr. Christopher Higgins, Dr. Shirley Mills, **Balancing Work and Family: A Study of the Canadian Federal Public Sector**, December 1991.

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Erratum
Publication

Errata

Catalogue 11-008E
No. 31 - Winter 1993

In the table "Primary responsibility for work around the house among couples aged 15-64 with children under age 19, 1990" on page 12 of the Winter 1993 issue of **Canadian Social Trends**, the third line under the heading **Meal preparation** should read:

Single earner, husband full-time.

Primary responsibility for work around the house among couples aged 15-64 with children under age 19, 1990

Household chore and type of couple	Total[1]	Primary responsibility			
		Wife only	Husband only	Wife and husband equal	Other[2]
		%			
Meal preparation					
Dual-earner, both full-time	100	72	13	12	2
Dual-earner, wife part-time[3]	100	86	7	6	–
Single-earner, husband full-time	100	89	5	5	–
Meal clean-up					
Dual-earner, both full-time	100	59	16	15	6
Dual-earner, wife part-time[3]	100	72	9	10	3
Single-earner, husband full-time	100	78	7	8	3
Cleaning and laundry					
Dual-earner, both full-time	100	74	7	13	3
Dual-earner, wife part-time[3]	100	86	4	6	–
Single-earner, husband full-time	100	86	4	7	–
House maintenance and outside work					
Dual-earner, both full-time	100	7	79	4	9
Dual-earner, wife part-time[3]	100	9	80	3	6
Single-earner, husband full-time	100	8	77	5	9

1 May not add to 100 due to rounding and the exclusion of Not Stated.
2 Someone other than the wife or husband has primary responsibility for the chore.
3 In this type of couple, the husband works full-time.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey.

JUN 12 1994
University of Toronto

DUAL EARNERS

Who's responsible for housework?

by Katherine Marshall





Women employed full-time and in dual-earner families, particularly those with young children, are the most pressured for time. This is not surprising, given that these women carry the double burden of paid work and unpaid housework. More than one-half of full-time working wives in dual-earner families with children at home[1] are solely responsible for all daily household chores, according to the 1990 General Social Survey (GSS). However, husbands of these women generally take a greater role in domestic chores than do other husbands. Sharing of household work tends to be most common among younger, well-educated couples with few children. Nonetheless, the division of housework is still far from equal.

Most couples are dual earners Balancing family and job obligations has become a challenge for more Canadian couples than ever before. According to the 1990 GSS, 71% of couples, with children under age 19 in the household, were dual earners (both partners had at least some employment outside the home) that year. In contrast, just over 20 years ago, only 30% of such families were dual earners.

In 1990, both the wife and the husband were employed full-time in 51% of two-parent families. In 19% of two-parent families, the husband worked full-time, while the wife was employed part-time. Single-earner families, in which the husband was employed full-time and the wife was at home full-time, accounted for 27%.

Wives' responsibility for housework varies with employment status As wives' involvement in the workforce increases, their responsibility for housework declines, but their husband's contribution does not increase enough to approach parity. For example, 72% of wives aged 15-64 working full-time who had children living at home were solely responsible for meal preparation, compared with 86% of wives employed part-time and 89% of those not in the labour force.

Husbands in dual-earner families, with both partners employed full-time and with children at home, were the most likely of all husbands to assume responsibility for domestic chores. The proportions who did

[1] The population examined in this article consists of married or common-law couples with both partners aged 15-64 and with dependent children under age 19 at home.

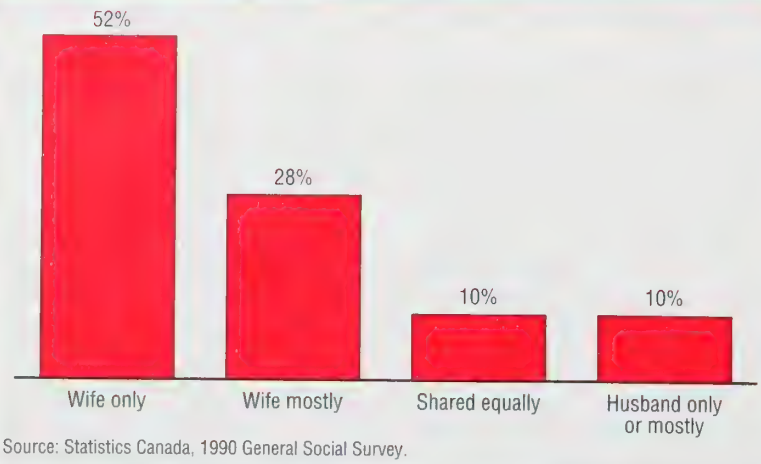
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Primary responsibility for work around the house among couples aged 15-64 with children under age 19, 1990 CST

Household chore and type of couple	Total[1]	Primary responsibility: Wife only	Husband only	Wife and husband equal	Other[2]
		%			
Meal preparation					
Dual-earner, both full-time	100	72	13	12	2
Dual-earner, wife part-time[3]	100	86	7	6	– –
Single-earner, husband part-time	100	89	5	5	– –
Meal clean-up					
Dual-earner, both full-time	100	59	16	15	6
Dual-earner, wife part-time[3]	100	72	9	10	3
Single-earner, husband full-time	100	78	7	8	3
Cleaning and laundry					
Dual-earner, both full-time	100	74	7	13	3
Dual-earner, wife part-time[3]	100	86	4	6	– –
Single-earner, husband full-time	100	86	4	7	– –
House maintenance and outside work					
Dual-earner, both full-time	100	7	79	4	9
Dual-earner, wife part-time[3]	100	9	80	3	6
Single-earner, husband full-time	100	8	77	5	9

[1] May not add to 100 due to rounding and the exclusion of Not Stated.
[2] Someone other than the wife or husband has primary responsibility for the chore.
[3] In this type of couple, the husband works full-time.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey.

Wives largely responsible for housework in dual-earner families with both spouses employed full-time, 1990 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey.

so, however, were relatively low. Meal clean-up was the task that these men most often shared (15%) or did on their own (16%). Slightly fewer shared (12%) or had sole responsibility (13%) for meal preparation. And although 13% of husbands shared the cleaning and laundry, these were the chores that they were least likely to do alone (7%).

Men maintained responsibility for chores such as repairs, maintenance and yard work, regardless of whether their wife was employed or stayed at home. In 1990, for example, the husband had sole responsibility for these tasks in 79% of full-time dual-earner families with children at home. In families where the wife stayed at home, the proportion was 77%.

Women working full-time often responsible for all housework In one-half of couples with children under age 19, both spouses are employed full-time, and consequently, have less time for domestic chores than do those with other employment patterns. With both partners sharing responsibility for paid work, it would appear that these couples deviate from traditional gender roles. However, this is not the case in the home, where wives still are usually responsible for the routine household chores of meal preparation and clean up, as well as cleaning and laundry.[2] Over half of wives employed full-time (52%) had all of the responsibility for daily housework, while another 28% had most of this responsibility. Only 10% of dual-earning couples working full-time shared responsibility for housework equally. In the remaining 10% of couples, the husband had all or most of the responsibility.

Who shares...who doesn't? Only a small minority of dual-earner couples, with both partners working full-time and with children at home, had an egalitarian division of housework. Generally, the younger the partners, the less likely was the wife to be the only one responsible for housework. For example, 47% of wives under age 35, in dual-earner families and employed full-time, were solely responsible for daily housework, compared with 69% of those wives aged

[2] Throughout the rest of this article, the terms "housework" or "household chores" refer to the tasks of meal preparation, meal clean-up, and cleaning and laundry.

The General Social Survey

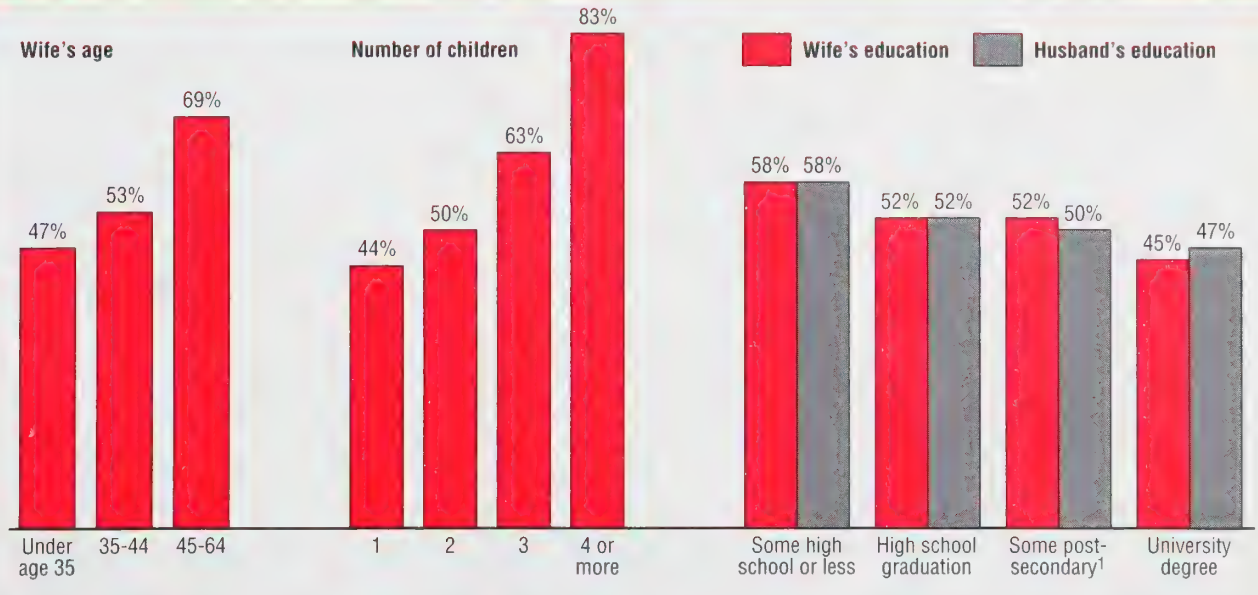


Statistics Canada established the General Social Survey (GSS) in 1985 to monitor changes in the living conditions and well-being of Canadians, and to provide information on various social issues of current or emerging interest. Data are collected annually from a random sample of households. Approximately 13,500 people were interviewed in 1990. The target population consists of all people aged 15 and over, except full-time residents of institutions and residents of the Yukon and the Northwest Territories. For further information on the survey, contact Josephine Stanic at (613) 951-8644.

Determining level of responsibility for housework A point system was used to determine responsibility for housework. Individuals scored a point each time they were acknowledged as having primary responsibility for meal preparation, meal clean-up, and cleaning and laundry. If responsibility for a chore was shared equally, each partner scored a point. Since daily housework consisted of three chores, the maximum score was three points. For example, "wife mostly" comprises scores of W=3 H=2; W=3 H=1; and W=2 H=1.

Because one respondent reported for all family members, the data reflect that person's perception of who was responsible for household chores. Husbands collectively perceived themselves as doing more than wives observed them doing, and vice versa. Since results were based on responses from both husbands and wives, differences in perception generally averaged out. In the case of income, however, the analysis of husbands' income and housework was based on male respondents only, which results in a male perspective on the division of household chores. The same is true for female income and housework. This produces some bias in reporting.

Percentage of wives employed full-time and in dual-earner families with sole responsibility for housework, 1990



[1] Includes certificate or diploma.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1990 General Social Survey.

45-64. Some of this variation is due to attitudinal differences across age groups.

Although husbands and children may help with household tasks, women assume more responsibility for housework as the number of children in the household increases. The percentage of full-time employed wives in dual-earner families who had all responsibility for housework increased from 44% of those with one child at home to 83% of those with four or more children. It appears that women are more likely than men to do the extra work required to maintain a home with several children. It is also possible that parents with several children at home may have retained many traditional values, despite the mother working at a paid job.

Women in common-law unions where both partners work full-time were somewhat less likely than those in marriages to do all the housework. The wife had sole responsibility for housework in 46% of common-law unions, compared with 52% of marriages.

Women with high educational attainment were less likely than others to assume full responsibility for domestic chores in dual-earner families. University-educated women employed full-time with children living at home had sole responsibility for daily housework in 45% of their households. This was the case in 58% of households where women had less than high school graduation. Husbands with higher education were more likely than others to share responsibility for household chores. This may be because there is less of an income differential between wives and husbands as education level rises. More equality in income earned may lead to more equal sharing of responsibilities for housework.

The relationship between domestic responsibility and income differed for women and men. In dual-earner families with both partners working full-time, the wife's likelihood of having sole responsibility for housework declined as her income rose. Whereas 67% of women whose income was under $20,000 had sole responsibility for housework, this was the case for 53% of those whose income was $40,000 or over. As a husband's income increased, his propensity for doing housework declined, leaving an increasing proportion of wives with sole responsibility for domestic chores. Thirty-nine percent of wives whose husband's income was under $20,000 had sole responsibility for housework, compared with 45% of those whose husband's income was $40,000 or over. This pattern corresponds to the theory that the relative social and economic power between husbands and wives determines who does household chores.[3] In other words, having greater economic power "buys" time out of housework.

Satisfaction with division of chores

Despite the fact that most women are solely or mostly responsible for housework, the vast majority of both women and men in dual-earner families indicated that they were satisfied with the allocation of domestic chores. Almost all husbands (97%) and wives (98%) in households where housework was shared equally, as well as spouses with little responsibility for these tasks (at least 94%), reported being satisfied with this arrangement. Not surprisingly, spouses least satisfied were those with sole responsibility for household chores. For example, only 75% of wives in this situation reported being satisfied with the division of labour.

Dual earners' time for activities and balance between family and job

Spouses with sole responsibility for housework are less satisfied than their partners with the amount of time they have to pursue other interests. In dual-earner families where both partners were working full-time, 58% of women with sole responsibility for housework were satisfied, compared with 70% of their partners. In those families where the husband had sole or most of the responsibility, 54% of men were satisfied, compared with 74% of their spouses. In other dual-earner families, around 60% of both husbands and wives were satisfied with the amount of time they had for other activities.

Regardless of the allocation of responsibility for housework, around 80% of spouses in dual-earner families said that they were satisfied with the balance between job and family. Experience with other surveys has shown, however, that reported levels of satisfaction tend to be somewhat exaggerated because many people consider it more socially acceptable to express satisfaction than dissatisfaction with their personal life.

Traditional division of labour

Although in many families today, both spouses are working, traditional roles still persist in the home. Women, even those employed full-time, continue to be primarily responsible for housework, whereas men maintain responsibility for tasks such as repairs, outside work and maintenance.

Responsibility for a chore goes beyond the actual performance of the task to include anticipating, planning and organizing what needs to be done and managing people, resources and time. The routine tasks of housework – such as meal preparation, meal clean-up, and cleaning and laundry – are time-consuming and often must be performed daily or at least weekly. In contrast, many repair, yard work and maintenance chores are done infrequently and, in some cases, can be delayed indefinitely.

Because of the differences in the nature of the responsibilities, it is usually more difficult to manage the daily household chores in conjunction with full-time employment than to manage the more infrequent repairs, yard work and maintenance. Without a more equal division of responsibility for housework, women will have to continue to juggle employment, household chores and family time. This, in turn, will leave them more limited time for professional or personal development.

[3] Brayfield, April A., "Employment Resources and Housework in Canada," in **Journal of Marriage and the Family**, Vol. 54, No. 1, February 1992, pp.19-30.

Katherine Marshall is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.

- See also "Employed Parents and the Division of Housework" by Katherine Marshall in **Perspectives on Labour and Income**, Autumn 1993, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001.

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T R E N D S • I N

Health Status and Practices

Canada and the United States

by Charlotte A. Schoenborn

Trends in health status and practices in Canada and the United States can be compared using data from Canadian and American surveys. Intercountry comparisons of data from a single year should be made with caution, however, because both the definitions of terms and the context and wording of questions differ between the Canadian and American surveys. – Ed.

In Canada and the United States, helping people develop healthier lifestyles is an important public health issue. Both countries are participating in the World Health Organization's campaign to achieve "Health for All by the Year 2000." Behaviours that have been aggressively targeted with public education campaigns, legislation and taxation – such as smoking, impaired driving and seatbelt use – are changing the most. Other preventive health practices – such as exercising, regular breakfast eating and maintenance of normal weight – have not received the same level of attention, and people's behaviour in these areas has not changed as much in recent years.[1]

Continued on page 18

[1] Measures of health status and behaviours are from Canada's Health Promotion Surveys (HPS) and the U.S. National Health Interview Surveys of Health Promotion and Disease Prevention. In this article, the Canadian population refers to those aged 17 and over and the American population, to those aged 18 and over.

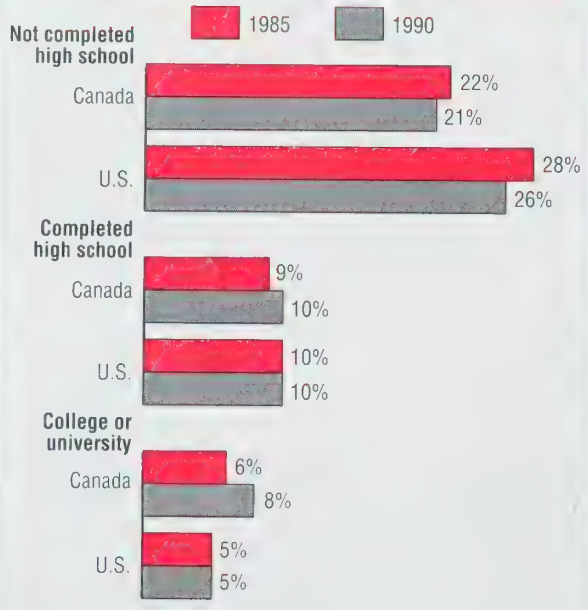


Health status

Health: There is a significant time lag between engaging in most personal health behaviours and observing the subsequent health effects. It is not surprising, therefore, that despite recent improvements in health promotion practices in Canada and the United States, percentages of people reporting fair or poor health were similar in 1985 and 1990 in both countries. In 1990, 13% of men and 12% of women in Canada reported fair or poor health. Proportions in the United States were 12% for men and 10% for women.

In both Canada and the United States, people with low educational attainment were much more likely than others to report fair or poor health. This may be due, in part, to the fact that seniors, many of whom have lower levels of education, tend not to be as healthy overall as younger people. In addition, it may be partly because low educational attainment is associated with low income and barriers to accessing information, both of which may result in less healthy lifestyles. People with low incomes, in particular, may not be able to obtain adequate nutrition, shelter and, in the United States, health care. In 1990, among people with less than 12 years of schooling, 21% of people in Canada and 26% of those in the United States said their health was fair or poor. These proportions dropped to 10% or less in both countries for those with at least 12 years of formal education.

Percentage of adults[1] reporting fair or poor health, by education level, Canada and the U.S., 1985 and 1990



[1] Includes people aged 17 and over in Canada and aged 18 and over in the U.S.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, **Canada's Health Promotion Survey, 1990: Technical Report.**

Stress: Stress levels rose among men and women in both countries during the late 1980s, although gender differences existed. Men in Canada were slightly more likely than women to regard their lives as stressful. In 1990, 13% of men and 12% of women in Canada reported their lives as very stressful, up from 10% of men and 8% of women in 1985. In contrast, stressful lives were much more common among women in the United States than men. In that country, 20% of men and 27% of women said that they were under a lot of stress in 1990, while in 1985, 18% of men and 23% of women were in that situation.

Perceptions of personal stress give some indication of mental well-being – a key factor in the pursuit of a healthy lifestyle and the attainment of good health. Although not evident now, increasing levels of stress may result in greater use of harmful substances such as tobacco and alcohol, and reduced attention to the protection of health through exercising or balanced eating.

Overweight: The proportion of men and women considered overweight (as measured using the Body Mass Index[2]) increased in Canada and the United States between 1985 and 1990. By 1990, 27% of men and 18% of women in Canada were overweight, up from 19% of men and 14% of women in 1985. In the United States, 26% of both men and women were overweight in 1990. This is up from 22% each in 1985.

Being overweight is often the consequence of poor health behaviours, such as overeating and lack of exercise, but can also result from medical problems. It is possible that as the number of people with stressful lives increases, poor health behaviours which contribute to being overweight may become more common. This could lead to an increase in obesity, which in turn could result in additional health problems.

Personal health practices

Smoking: Smoking declined in both countries during the last half of the 1980s. In 1990, 32% of men and 29% of women in Canada were current smokers, down from 36% of men and 33% of women in 1985.

In the United States, 28% of men and 23% of women in 1990 were current smokers, compared with 33% of men and 28% of women in 1985.

Seniors aged 65 and over are still the least likely to smoke. In 1990, 18% of senior men and 14% of senior women in Canada were current smokers. Proportions in the United States were 15% for senior men and 11% for senior women. In contrast, among people aged 25-44 (those most likely to smoke), 36% of men and 34% of women in Canada, and 33% of men and 27% of women in the United States, were current smokers.

Adults in both countries who have not gone beyond high school are much more likely to smoke than their more educated counterparts. Nonetheless, proportions dropped among all education groups from 1985 to 1990.

Declines in smoking point to the success of national anti-smoking campaigns in both Canada and the United States. Some of the steps taken in these campaigns have been education about the hazards of smoking, increased taxes on tobacco products, higher insurance premiums for smokers than for non-smokers and restrictions on smoking in public areas and workplaces.

Alcohol consumption: Whereas current alcohol consumption (having had a drink in the 12 months preceding the survey) remained relatively constant during the latter part of the 1980s in Canada, it declined somewhat in the United States. Just over eight-in-ten Canadians reported having had a drink in 1990, the same as in 1985. In contrast, over the same period, the proportion of current drinkers in the United States dropped to 61% from 65%.

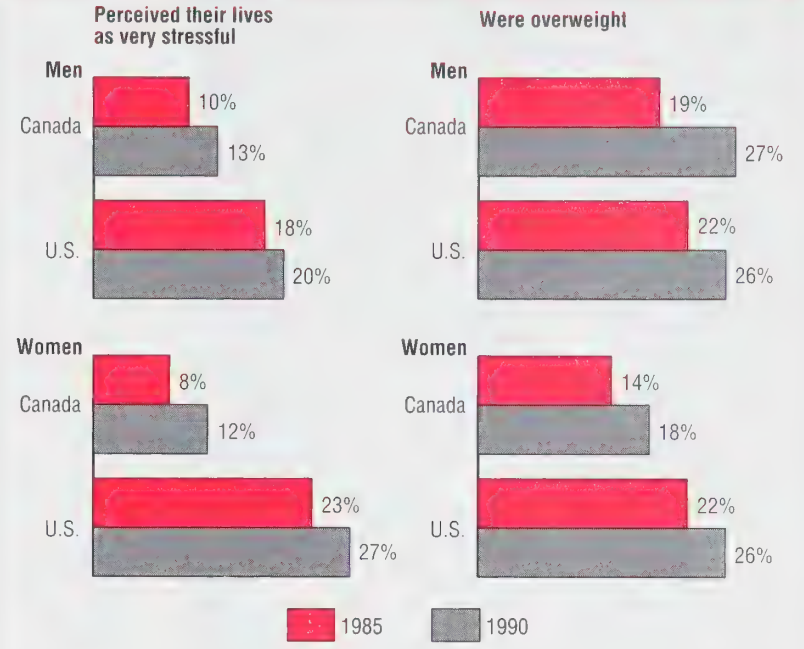
Reductions in daily drinking occurred among men in Canada and in the United States.[3] In Canada, 16% of male current drinkers in 1990 drank two or more drinks per day, on average, whereas the proportion in 1985 was 23%. In the United States, 14% of male current drinkers reported having two or more drinks daily in 1990, down from 17% in 1985.

Declines in daily drinking occurred among all education groups, although the largest drop was among those with at least some college or university. The proportion of Canadian current drinkers with at least some postsecondary education who drank two or more drinks daily was 8% in 1990, down from 14% in 1985. Among those who had not completed high school, the percentage dropped to 11% from 13%. Declines were not as great south of the border among those with at least some college or university education. The proportion of American current drinkers with this level of education who drank two or more drinks daily dropped three percentage points to 8% in 1990 from 11% in 1985.

[2] In the Canadian surveys, a person was considered overweight if he or she had a BMI [weight (in kg)/height^2 (in m)] greater than 27. In the American surveys, overweight was defined as a BMI greater than 27.8 for men and 27.3 for women.

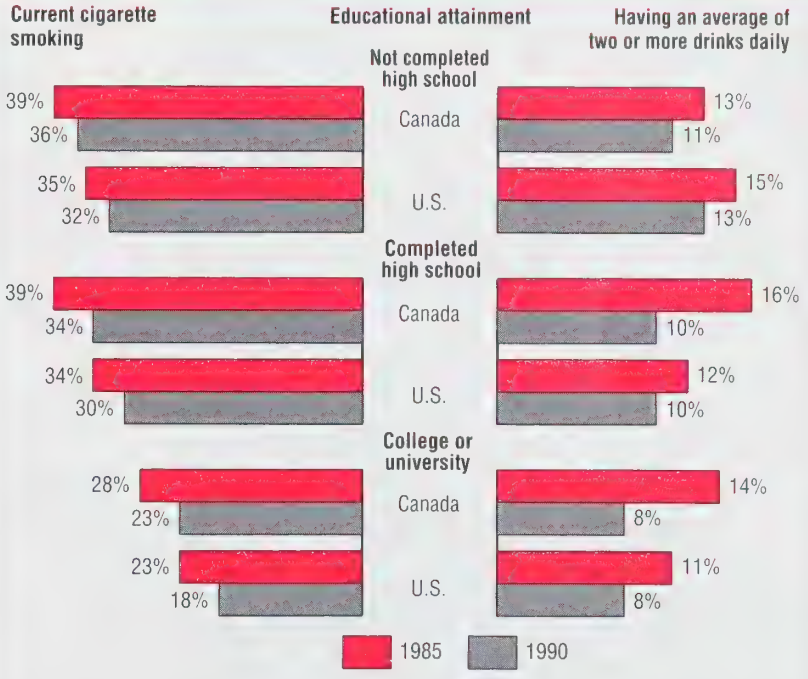
[3] Daily drinking of two or more drinks is rare among women in both countries. As a result, the sample size is too small to make any inferences about heavy drinking trends among women.

Health status of adults,[1] by gender, Canada and the U.S., 1985 and 1990



[1] Includes people aged 17 and over in Canada and aged 18 and over in the U.S.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, **Canada's Health Promotion Survey, 1990: Technical Report.**

Smoking and drinking in Canada and the U.S.,[1] 1985 and 1990



[1] Includes people aged 17 and over in Canada and aged 18 and over in the U.S.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, **Canada's Health Promotion Survey, 1990: Technical Report.**



Driving after drinking: Drinking and driving became less common in both countries during the late 1980s. The proportion of current drinkers in Canada who reported driving within two hours of drinking any amount of alcohol dropped to 23% in 1990 from 25% in 1985. In the United States, the decline was sharper, but the survey question was much different. In 1990, 12% of Americans reported driving when they perhaps had too much to drink, down from 17% in 1985.

The reduction in the proportion of Canadians reporting that they drove after drinking was almost totally attributable to young adults under age 25. The decline among young people more than offset the effect of men aged 45 and over, whose incidence of drinking and driving increased.

Although favourable health practices tend to be more common among adults with higher educational attainment, this was not the case for drinking and driving in Canada in either 1985 or 1990. In 1990, for example, 30% of current drinkers with at least some college or university education drove within two hours of having had a drink, compared with 20% of those who had completed high school and 17% of those without a high school diploma. In the United States, however, sharp declines in the rate of drinking and driving among more highly educated Americans have almost completely eliminated differences in rates by education. In 1990, 12% of current drinkers in the United States with at least some postsecondary education, 13% of those with a high school education, and 11% of those who

Adults[1] who reported drinking and driving, Canada and the U.S., 1985 and 1990

Age group and gender	Canada 1985	Canada 1990	U.S. 1985	U.S. 1990
	% reporting driving...			
	... after drinking any amount of alcohol		... when they perhaps had too much to drink	
18-24				
Men	37	31	38	26
Women	17	11	19	13
25-44				
Men	42	42	27	19
Women	14	14	12	9
45-64				
Men	27	31	11	10
Women	9	7	3	3
65 and over				
Men	12	18	3	4
Women	7	6*	0	2
Total				
Men	35	35	22	16
Women	13	11	10	8

[1] Includes people aged 17 and over in Canada and aged 18 and over in the U.S.
* Moderate sampling variability.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, **Canada's Health Promotion Survey, 1990: Technical Report.**

had not completed high school, reported driving when they perhaps had had too much to drink.

Physical activity: According to the Health Promotion Survey, the proportion of Canadians who were physically active declined during the last half of the 1980s.[4] In 1990, 47% of people in Canada reported vigorous physical activity of at least 15 minutes duration three or more times weekly, down from 53% in 1985. This decline in physical activity is consistent with increased prevalence of being overweight. In the United States, overall rates of exercising or playing sports regularly remained stable at about 40% in 1985 and 1990.

Education has little effect on Canadians' participation in physical activities, while making a significant difference in the United States. In 1990, 44% of Canadians who had not completed high school reported regular physical activity, compared with 49% of those who had completed high school or had at least some college or university education. In the United States, the proportion of people who reported exercising or playing sports regularly ranged from 26% of those who had not completed high school to 37% of those who had completed high school and 52% of those with at least some college or university.

Regular breakfast eating: Breakfast eating habits remained about the same between 1985 and 1990 in both countries. In 1990, 74% of Canadians ate breakfast five to seven times a week. That year, 56% of those in the United States reported eating breakfast almost every day.

In both countries, seniors were the most likely to eat breakfast regularly. In 1990, 92% of both Canadian men and women aged 65 and over were regular breakfast eaters, while this was the case for 86% of American men and 85% of American women that age.

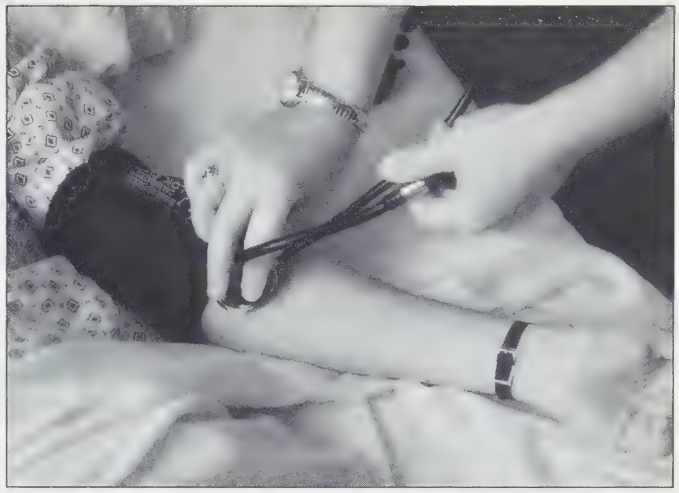
Some of the benefits of eating breakfast, such as improved concentration and greater comprehension, particularly among children in school, have been well-documented. Also, people who eat breakfast have been more successful at losing weight than others who did not eat breakfast, but who had the same caloric intake.

Preventive health care

Blood pressure check: In Canada and the United States, the proportion of people who had had their blood pressure checked recently remained about the same in 1985 and 1990. About three-quarters of adults in each country had had their blood pressure checked in the 12 months preceding the survey.

Seniors were the most likely to have had a recent blood pressure check. In Canada, about 90% of people aged 65 and over reported having had their blood pressure checked in the 12 months before the survey. The proportion was about 85% in the United States.

Breast self-examination: Breast cancer rates have been rising in both Canada and the United States for the past several decades. One of the key factors in the early detection of breast cancer is breast self-examination, a practice which increased in



the United States during the last half of the 1980s. In 1990, 38% of American women reported that they examined their breasts for lumps once a month, up from 32% in 1985. Increases in this preventive health practice occurred regardless of age or educational attainment.

In Canada, 27% of women reported that they performed monthly breast self-examinations in 1990. Trend information for Canada is not available from the HPS, however, because the wording of the question in 1985 was "know how to examine your own breasts."

Pap smears: The percentage of women having had a Pap smear within three years of the survey declined in Canada, while rising in the United States. In 1990, the Canadian proportion was 72%, down from 76% in 1985. In contrast, the American proportion was 81% in 1990, up from 78% in 1985. These trends held true among all age groups and education levels, although differences existed in the magnitude of the changes.

Commitment to health promotion Based on these trends, it would appear that national policies and priorities do influence health-related behaviour. Both Canada and the United States have set health promotion objectives for this decade. Continuing these national commitments to improvements in health promotion may lead to further reductions in preventable illness and disability associated with many risk-taking behaviours.

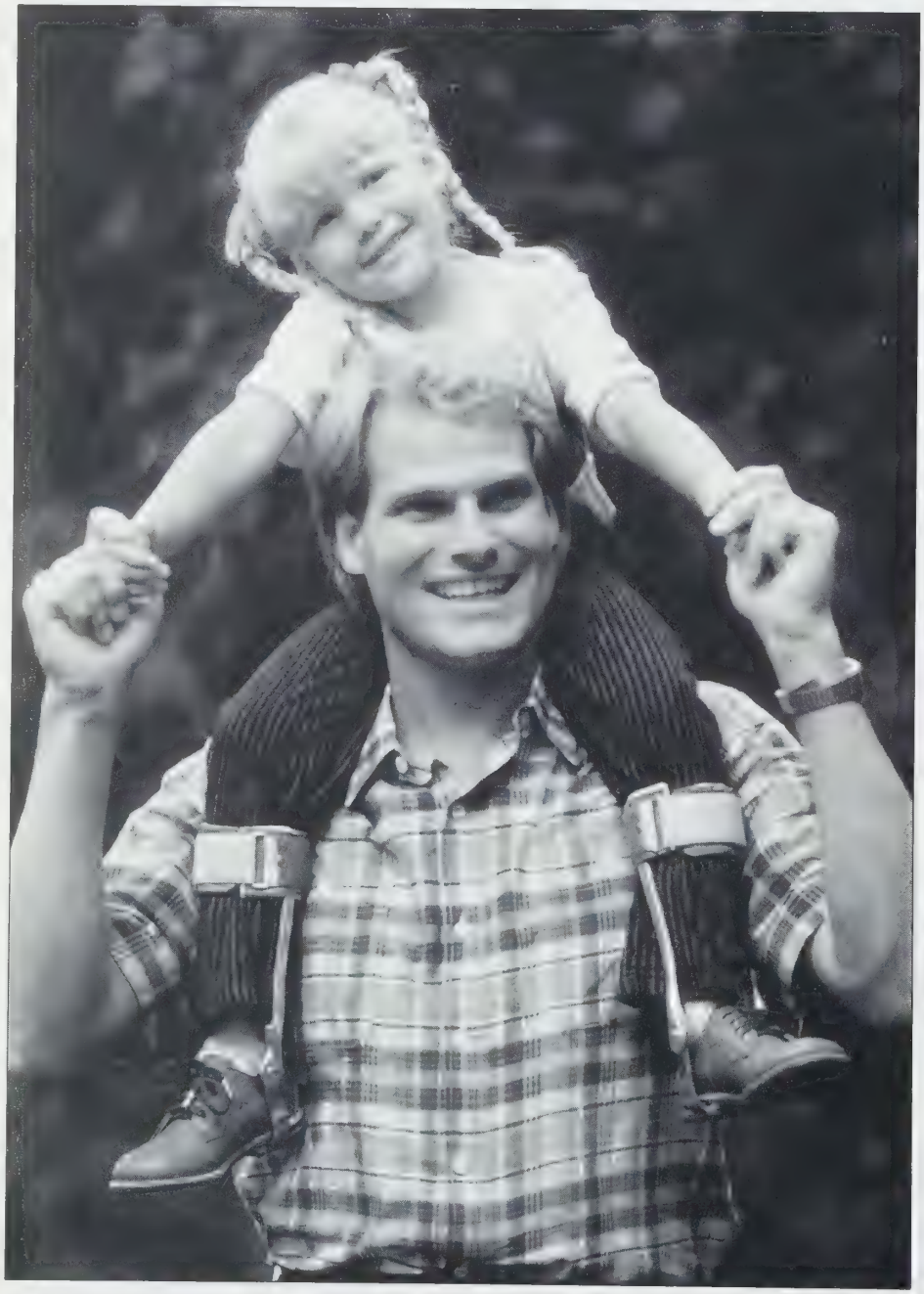
[4] This trend is not consistent with the findings of Statistics Canada's General Social Survey (GSS). According to the GSS, the proportion of physically active Canadians rose slightly to 74% in 1991 from 71% in 1985. The GSS determined people's physical activity based on answers to a series of questions, whereas the HPS determined it by a "yes" or "no" answer to one question.

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- For more information on the Health Promotion Survey, see Health and Welfare Canada, Stephens, T., and Graham D. Fowler, editors. **Canada's Health Promotion Survey, 1990: Technical Report**. Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services Canada, 1993.

Disabilities Among Children

by Jillian Oderkirk



The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on November 20, 1989. On September 2, 1990, the Convention entered into force as international law.

In May 1990, the Canadian government, as a signatory of this Convention, made a commitment to promote the dignity, self-esteem and participation of children with disabilities. The Convention states that "parties recognize that a mentally or physically disabled child should enjoy a full and decent life in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance, and facilitate the child's active participation in the community" (Article 23(1)). Also, "parties should undertake to ensure the child such protection and care as is necessary for his or her well-being, taking into account the rights and duties of his or her parents, legal guardians, or other individuals legally responsible for him or her, and, to this end, shall take all appropriate legislative and administrative measures" (Article 3(2)). – Ed.

Childhood mortality rates in Canada have fallen dramatically during this century due to improvements in neo-natal care and public hygiene, and the introduction of immunization programs which have protected children from traditional childhood infectious diseases.

As a result, disabilities have replaced infectious diseases as the most challenging health problems incurred by children.

According to the 1991 Health and Activity Limitation Survey (HALS), the proportion of Canadian children under age 15 with disabilities grew to 7% in 1991 (389,400 children) from 5% in 1986. Not all of this growth is attributable to a rising incidence of disability among children, however, because parents may have been more aware of or willing to acknowledge the existence of mild disabilities in their children in 1991 than in 1986.

Most children with disabilities (90%) had only one or two disabling conditions and were considered mildly disabled, while 8% were moderately disabled and 3% severely disabled. Younger children were slightly more likely than older children, however, to be moderately or severely disabled. About 11% of children under age 5 were moderately or severely disabled, compared with 9% of children aged 10-14. Very few children were so severely disabled that they were unable to live at home.[1]

Boys are more likely than girls to have disabilities. In 1991, 8% of boys were disabled, compared with 6% of girls. The incidence of disability was higher, however, among older children of both genders. This may be because the probability of detecting the presence of a disability increases as children age. In 1991, 11% of boys aged 10-14 and 7% of girls that age had disabilities. A smaller proportion of boys (5%) and girls (4%) aged 0-4 had disabilities.

Differences in disability rates were small among the provinces and territories. Children in Alberta and Saskatchewan (each 9%) were the most likely to have disabilities in 1991, while those in Newfoundland, Quebec and the Yukon (each 6%) were the least likely. Elsewhere in Canada, the disability rate ranged from 7% to 8%.

Learning disabilities common Learning disabilities were reported among 25% of disabled children, followed by behavioural or emotional difficulties (12%), mental handicap (10%) and heart disease (8%). Other chronic conditions included epilepsy, kidney disease and cerebral palsy (3% each) and arthritis, diabetes, paralysis and lung conditions other than asthma, allergies or bronchitis (2% each). Less than 1% of children with disabilities were reported as having cancer or muscular dystrophy.

Although the presence of allergies, asthma and bronchitis alone was not considered disabling, a large proportion of children who had disabilities also had these chronic conditions. Of all children with disabilities in 1991, 34% had allergies, 24% had asthma and 12% had bronchitis.

Many children with disabilities had conditions that limited participation in activities such as school or play (42%), difficulty speaking or being understood (20%), difficulty hearing (13%), long-term emotional, psychological, nervous or mental health conditions (11%), and vision difficulties not correctable with glasses or contact lenses (8%). Among children with disabilities, 18% used technical aids, such as a hearing aid or medically prescribed footwear.

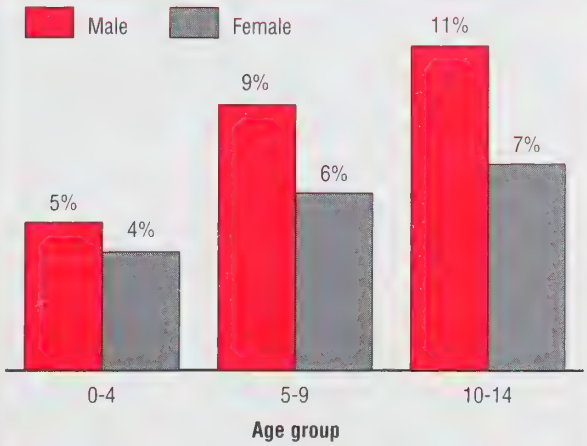
One-in-four participate in special education programs Among Canadian children with disabilities in 1991, 26% attended a special school or special class in a regular school, or had an individualized educational program because of a long-term condition or health problem. Participation in special education programs was not, however, evenly distributed across the country.

Variations in provincial participation rates may be due, in part, to differences in the availability of special classes.

[1] In 1986, less than 1% of all children with disabilities aged 0-14 (2,400 children) were living in institutions such as orphanages or children's homes, special care homes, general hospitals, psychiatric institutions or treatment centres. Because so few children were living in institutions in 1986, this population was not surveyed in 1991.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Proportion of all children with disabilities, by age, 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, Health and Activity Limitation Survey, 1991.

Associated features of childhood disability, Ontario, 1983

Co-existing conditions	Children with disabilities	Children without disabilities
	%	
Physical health problems	52.7	10.6
Mental health problems	38.6	16.5
Social relationship problems	23.0	11.0
School failure	32.9	11.0
Use of ambulatory medical care	68.2	56.8
Special education	45.5	12.6
Use of mental health or social services	18.7	4.9

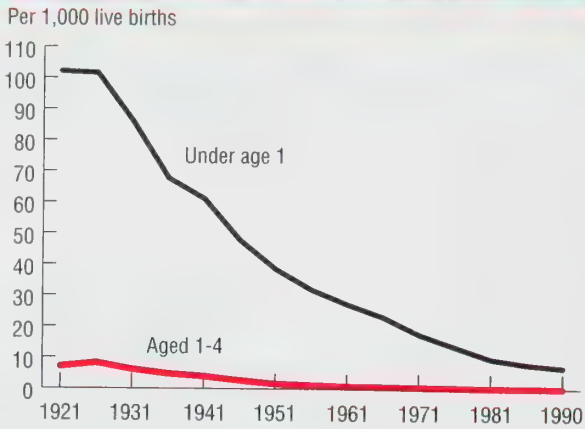
Source: Boyle, M.H., "Child Health in Ontario", **The State of the Child in Ontario**. Toronto: Oxford University Press (1991), p.104.

Drop in deaths from infectious diseases Infant and young child mortality rates have declined rapidly since the 1920s due to expansive immunization programs and improvements in neo-natal care. Most of the survival gains have been among infants and very young children.

Infant death rates for every 1,000 live births fell to 6.8 in 1990 from 27.2 in 1961, 61.1 in 1941 and 102.1 in 1921. Death rates among older children also declined from 1921 to 1990, falling to 0.4 from 7.4 for every 1,000 children aged 1-4, to 0.2 from 2.9 for every 1,000 children aged 5-9, and to 0.2 from 2.0 for every 1,000 children aged 10-14.

The percentage of all post neo-natal infant deaths (those among infants aged 4 weeks to one year) due to infectious diseases fell to 10% in 1981-1985 from 56% in 1956-1960 and 72% in 1926-1930. Among children aged 1-4, just 10% of deaths in 1981-1985 were due to infectious diseases, down substantially from 33% in 1956-1960 and 73% in 1926-1930.

Infant and young child death rates, 1921-1990 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-003S15.

The Health and Activity Limitation Survey

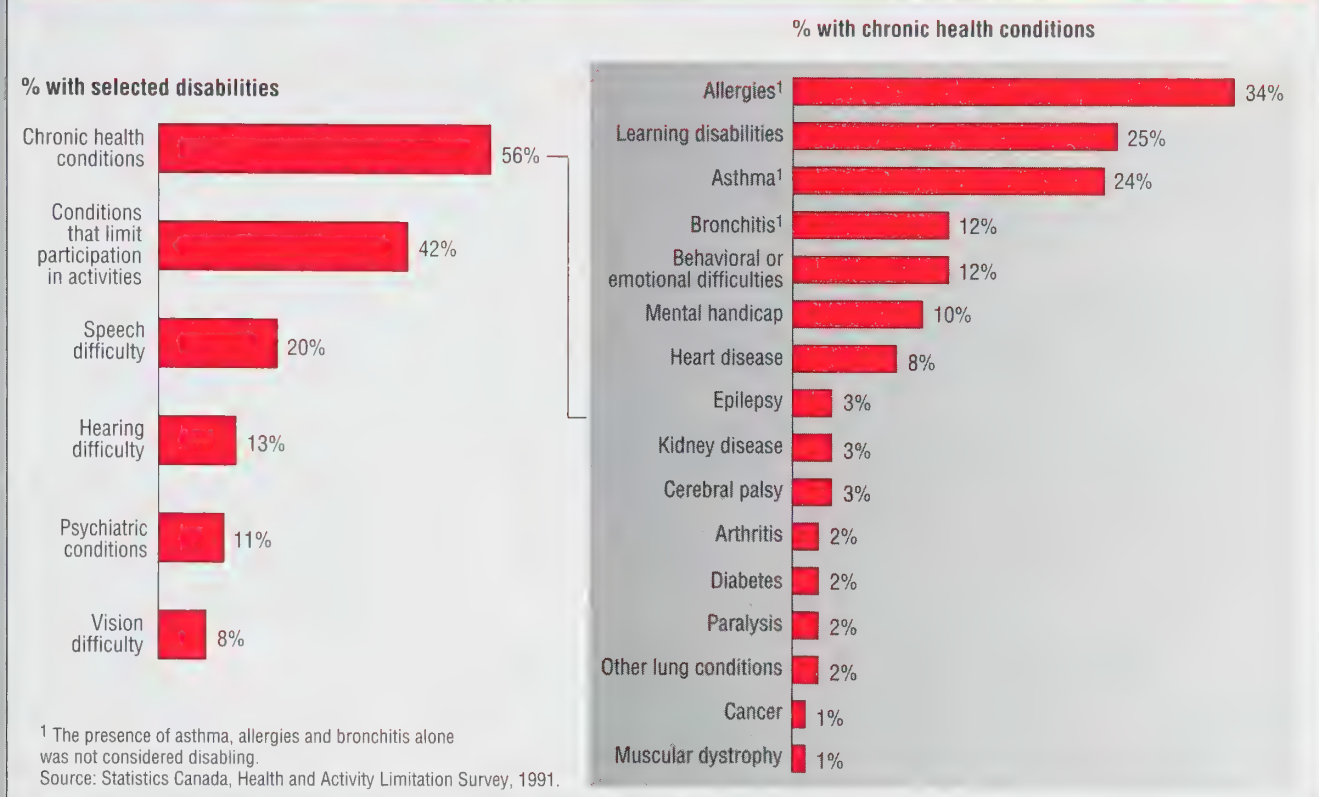
The Health and Activity Limitation Survey, conducted in 1986 and 1991, was designed to contribute to a national database on disability. The survey collected data on the nature and severity of disabilities; the barriers that persons with disabilities face in household tasks, employment, education, accommodation, transportation, finances, and recreation and lifestyles; the use of and need for assistive devices; and the out-of-pocket expenses related to disability. For more information on the survey or on the non-catalogued publication **Children and Youth with Disabilities in Canada: The 1986 Health and Activity Limitation Survey** contact any Statistics Canada Regional Office or Colleen Cardillo, Post-Censal Surveys Program, (613) 951-2050.

Disability defined A disability, as defined by the World Health Organization, is any restriction or lack of ability (resulting from an impairment) to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being. Children with any one of the following conditions are considered to have disabilities:

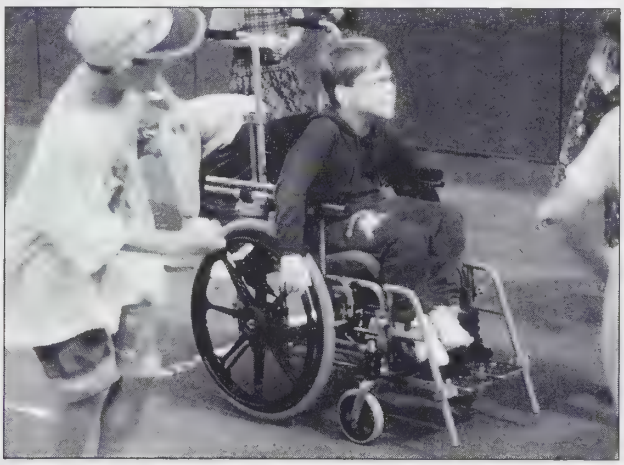
- a chronic condition including lung conditions or diseases other than allergies, asthma or bronchitis, heart or kidney conditions or diseases, cancer, diabetes, epilepsy, cerebral palsy, spina bifida, cystic fibroses, muscular dystrophy, paralysis, arthritis or rheumatism, behavioural or emotional conditions, mental handicaps, learning disabilities, missing or malformed limbs, high blood pressure and others;
- use of a technical aid, such as crutches, hearing aids or braces (excluding braces for teeth);
- long-term health problems that prevent or limit participation in school, at play or in any other activity considered normal for a child that age;
- enrolment in a special education school, in special classes or an individualized program;
- difficulty seeing, hearing or speaking;
- long-term emotional, psychological, nervous or mental health problems;
- or any other long-term health problem lasting six months or more.

Severity of disability A severity scale for children's disabilities was constructed based on the number of positive responses received to questions regarding different disabilities. When a positive response to one or two questions was received, the child was considered mildly disabled. A positive response to three or four questions resulted in a classification of moderately disabled, while a positive response to five or more questions resulted in a classification of severely disabled.

Children with disabilities, 1991



[1] The presence of asthma, allergies and bronchitis alone was not considered disabling.
Source: Statistics Canada, Health and Activity Limitation Survey, 1991.



In Ontario, 33% of children with disabilities participated in a special education program, the highest rate in the country. In contrast, just 8% of children in the Northwest Territories, 12% in Prince Edward Island, and 14% in Quebec participated in such programs. More than 25% of children with disabilities living in each of the Western provinces and Newfoundland attended special education programs, while in each of the Maritime provinces less than 19% attended.

Educational attainment difficulties and other problems Results from the 1986 HALS indicate that many children with disabilities experience disruptions in their schooling. In addition, according to the 1983 Ontario Child Health Survey, children with disabilities are more likely than others to experience emotional or behavioural problems and school failure, thus limiting educational attainment.

In 1986, one-third of Canadian children with disabilities took longer than other children to achieve their current level of schooling. Also, a high proportion (18%) of children with disabilities had their education interrupted for long periods of time. Some children with disabilities (6%) began their first year of school late.

Children in lower income families more likely to be disabled[2] In general, incidence of disability is higher among children and youth under age 20 living in families with the lowest incomes than those in families with higher incomes. The reported disability rate for young people from families with the lowest incomes (8%) in 1986 was over twice as high as that for those from high-income families (4%) when the population of children and youth with disabilities was divided into quintiles by family income.

The differential was even greater among the most severely disabled young people. The rate of severe disability for every 1,000 children and youth was five times higher for those from families with the lowest incomes (3.0 per 1,000) than for those from families with the highest incomes (0.6 per 1,000).

[2] Excerpt from Avard, Denise, **Children and Youth with Disabilities in Canada: The 1986 Health and Activity Limitation Survey**, Statistics Canada, non-catalogued publication.

Jillian Oderkirk is an Editor of **Canadian Social Trends.**

Non parlo né inglese, né francese





"I Can't Speak English or French"

by Brian Harrison



According to the most recent Canadian census, more people unable to speak English or French were living in Canada in 1991 than at any other time this century. In total, 308,500 people over age 5, 62% of whom were women, had this language barrier. Accessing services or finding employment may be very difficult for these people. In addition, their educational opportunities may be limited by the inability to speak one of Canada's official languages.

Heavy immigration during the 1980s, particularly during the last half of the decade, contributed to a large increase in the number of people unable to speak either official language. This has put a strain on services, such as language training and translation, required to help those unable to speak an official language cope within Canadian society.

51% of immigrants unable to speak English or French have been in Canada for more than ten years Most people who could not speak English or French in 1991 (86%) were immigrants to Canada while the remainder were non-permanent residents[1] and Canadian-born individuals. Notwithstanding the impact of recent high immigration levels, more than half (51%) of immigrants who could not speak one of the official languages had been living in Canada for more than ten years.

Although these individuals settled in Canada before 1981, they may not yet have learned English or French because their daily responsibilities isolate them from other Canadians. Immigrant women working in the home, for example, often live in communities where daily activities are conducted in their mother tongues. Others who arrived in Canada more recently have not yet had an opportunity to learn an official language. Of immigrants who could not speak English or French in 1991, 36% arrived after 1985 and 13% arrived between 1981 and 1985.

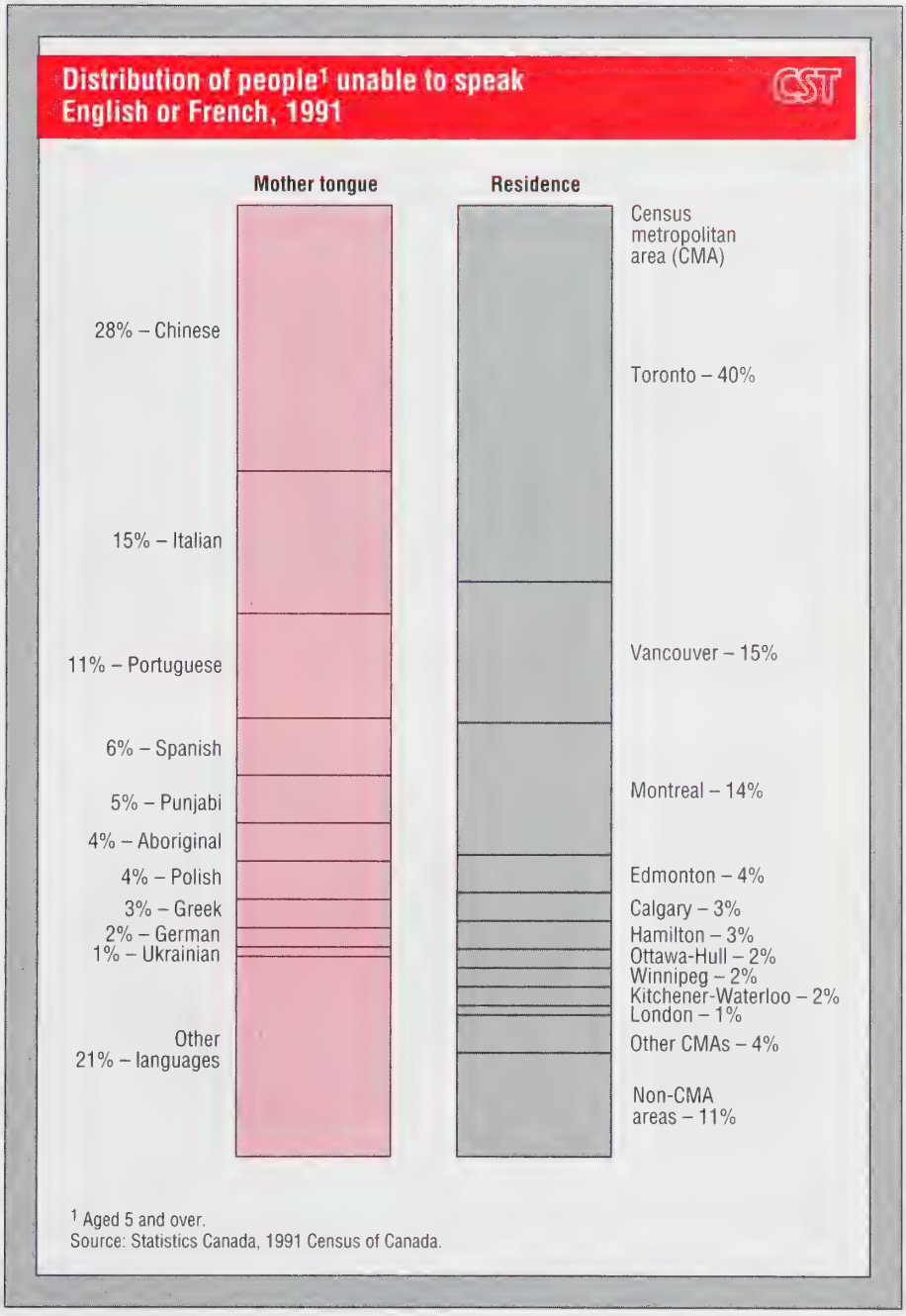
Knowledge of official languages varies Of all immigrants with a mother tongue other than English or French, 10% were unable to speak either official language well enough to conduct a conversation. Knowledge of English or French, however, varied widely by language group. Similar proportions of those with a Chinese (21%) or Portuguese (20%) mother tongue were unable to speak English or French. In contrast, just 1% of those with a German mother tongue and less than 1% of the Dutch mother tongue group were unable to speak an official language.

Broad differences in language knowledge exist, at least in part, because the proportion of people who could speak English or French prior to coming to Canada varies by language group. Recent immigration from countries where neither English nor French is widely spoken has led to an increase in the proportion unable to speak an official language.

More women than men Among adults 20 years or older who could not speak English or French, women outnumbered men in all age groups. The proportion of women rose with age, from 53% of those aged 20-24 to 67% of those aged 65 and over. Women's domestic responsibilities and more limited labour force participation likely restrict both their interaction with other Canadians outside of the home and their access to language training programs.

Most live in large households... People who could not speak English or French lived in larger households in 1991 than Canadians overall. Most people who were unable to speak an official language, 62%, lived with four or more people. In contrast, just 47% of all Canadians lived in a household that size. About 27% of those with this language barrier lived with six or more people.

Some people unable to speak English or French (6%), however, lived alone. Of

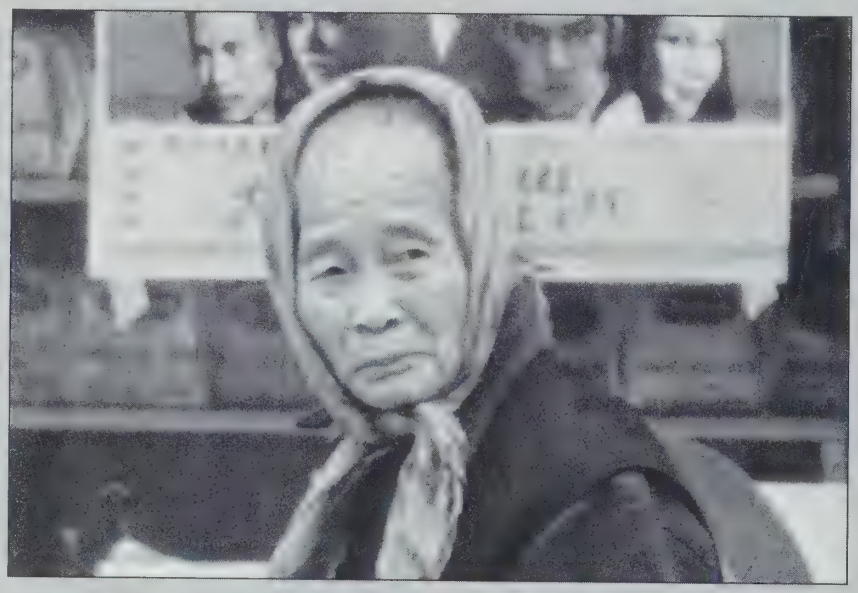


[1] People who hold student or employment authorizations, Minister's permits or who are refugee claimants.

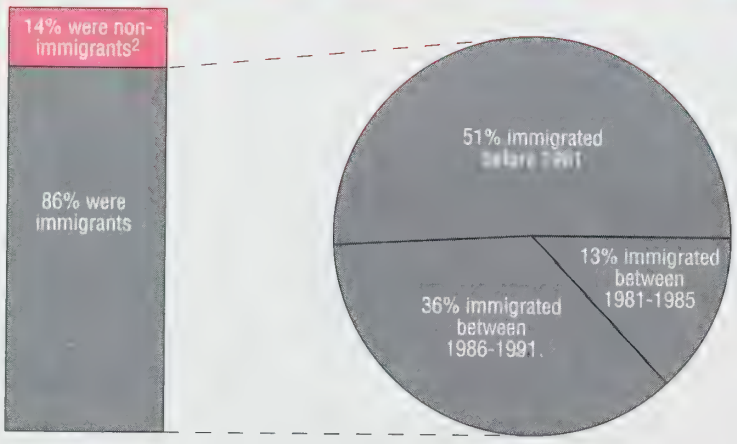
those living alone, mostly women, 43% had a Chinese or Italian mother tongue.

...and urban areas Concentrations of people unable to speak English or French are especially high in large urban areas where sizeable ethnic communities exist. More than 300 of every 10,000 people living in Toronto and Vancouver census metropolitan areas (CMAs) had this language barrier in 1991, while in the CMAs of Montreal, Calgary, Edmonton and Kitchener-Waterloo the ratio was about 150 for every 10,000 people. In contrast, rates in Hamilton (140), Windsor (133), Winnipeg (114) and London (103) were much closer to the national average of 124 for every 10,000 people. Those who could not speak either official language represented less than 100 of every 10,000 people living in Canada's other large urban areas.

More than two-thirds of those unable to speak English or French in 1991 lived in Toronto (40%), Vancouver (15%) and Montreal (14%). Many people with this language barrier also lived in Edmonton (4%), Calgary (3%) and Hamilton (3%). As a result, four provinces were home to almost all people who could not speak one of Canada's official languages: Ontario (53%), British Columbia (17%), Quebec (16%) and Alberta (8%). Other provinces and territories had far fewer people with this language difficulty, ranging from 3% (9,785 people) in Manitoba to an almost negligible percentage in Prince Edward Island (75 people) and the Yukon (30 people).



People[1] unable to speak English or French, 1991 CST



[1] Aged 5 and over.
[2] Includes non-permanent residents.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

Rapid growth since 1981 The number of people unable to speak English or French grew by 32% from 1981 to 1991. The four largest provinces, as well as urban areas that already had large populations with this language barrier, experienced high growth rates. The number of those who could not speak English or French increased by 67% in British Columbia, 45% in Alberta, 31% in Ontario and 27% in Quebec. Among the largest urban areas, the number increased by 88% in Vancouver, while rising 38% in both Toronto and Montreal. Large increases have an impact on social services, such as language training and translation, required to integrate this population into Canadian society.

Many Chinese, Italian and Portuguese People whose mother tongue was Chinese, Italian or Portuguese accounted for more than half of those unable to speak English or French in 1991. Chinese, the fastest growing language group in Canada since 1986, was the mother tongue of 28% of those who could not speak English or French, while Italian was the mother tongue of 15% and Portuguese of 11%.

Most of those with a Chinese mother tongue who could not speak English or French lived in Toronto (37%) or Vancouver (32%), while most Italians with this language barrier lived in Toronto (56%) or Montreal (24%). The majority of those who spoke Portuguese and could not speak either official language lived in Toronto (63%).

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• Adapted from the **1991 Census Short Article** of the same title.

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	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
POPULATION								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	25,941.6 IR	26,203.8 IR	26,549.7 IR	26,894.8 IR	27,379.3 IR	27,790.6 IR	28,117.6 PR	28,435.6 PR
Annual growth (%)	0.9 IR	1.0 IR	1.3 IR	1.3 IR	1.8 IR	1.5 IR	1.2 PR	1.1 PR
Immigration[1]	83,691 F	88,639 F	130,813 F	152,413 F	178,152 F	202,979 F	219,250 F	239,435 R
Emigration[1]	55,202 F	50,595 F	47,707 F	40,978 F	40,395 F	39,760 F	43,692 PR	48,519 PR
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	14.8	14.7	14.4	14.5	15.0	15.3	14.9	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.1	6.4	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.4	3.1	3.4	3.1	3.1	2.9	2.8	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	990	915	872	789	776	841	1,046	1,132
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244	12,486	12,572	12,340	12,240
– goods sector (000s)	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693	3,740	3,626	3,423	3,307
– service sector (000s)	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550	8,745	8,946	8,917	8,933
Total unemployment (000s)	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031	1,018	1,109	1,417	1,556
Unemployment rate (%)	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.3	11.3
Part-time employment (%)	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4	15.1	15.4	16.4	16.8
Women's participation rate (%)	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4	57.9	58.4	58.2	57.6
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	34.4	34.1	33.3	33.7	34.1	34.7	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	34,736	36,858	38,851	41,238	44,460	46,069	46,742	*
% of families with low income (1986 Base)	14.3	13.6	13.1	12.2	11.1	12.1	13.1	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	64.9	65.8	65.9	65.3	65.8	67.6	69.6	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.9	5,024.1	5,074.4	5,141.0	5,207.4 F	5,295.1 P
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.9	832.3	856.5	890.4 R	917.4 R
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415	2,600	2,673 R	2,947	3,136 R
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.5	*	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease – men	41.7	41.4	40.5	39.5	39.1	37.3	37.1	*
– women	45.3	44.9	44.0	43.4	42.6	41.2	41.0	*
% of deaths due to cancer – men	25.4	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.2	27.8	28.1	*
– women	25.7	25.5	26.1	26.4	26.4	26.8	27.0	*
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.8	6.0	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	*	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	749	808	856	898	948	1,013	1,100 R	1,122
– property	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630	5,503	5,841 R	6,394 R	6,110
– homicide	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.8 R	2.7
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1990 $000,000)	155,990.6	157,737.2	160,670.7	164,293.2	170,125.0	175,640.0	*	*
– as a % of total expenditures	55.8	56.4	56.1	56.2	56.2	56.7	*	*
– as a % of GDP	26.2	26.1	25.5	24.7	25.0	26.3	*	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) – annual % change	+4.8	+3.3	+4.2	+5.0	+2.3	-0.5	-1.7	+0.9
Annual inflation rate (%)	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5
Urban housing starts	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126

– Not available * Not yet available P Preliminary data E Estimate m Figures as of March
IR Revised intercensal estimates PR Updated postcensal estimates R Revised data F Final data

[1]For year ending June 30

[2]Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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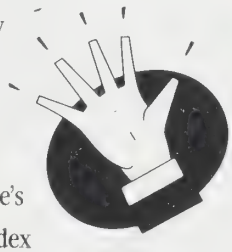


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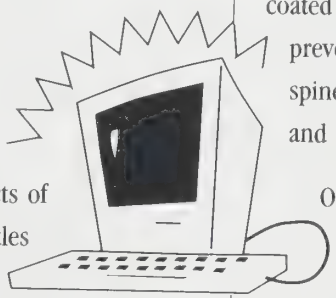
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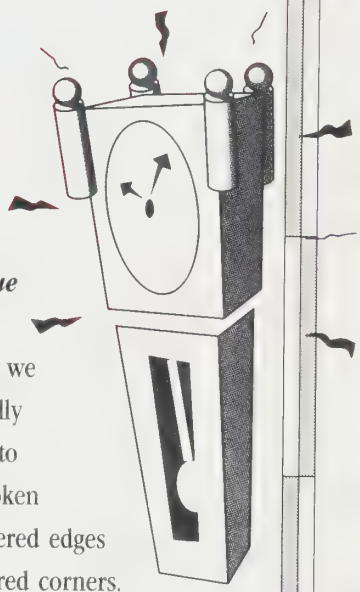


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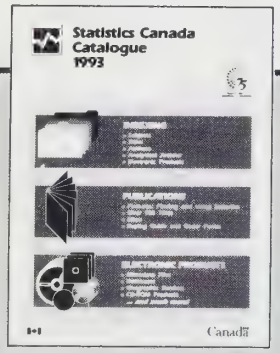


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